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ABSTRACT

Efforts put forth by the United Nations (UN) and specialized agencies and organs of the UN system to improve the status, nutrition, health, and education of women worldwide are the focus of this publication. The first of five sections, "Human Rights for Women," examines women's rights in the job field; UN steps to bring equality to the sexes (including provisions in the UN Charter and the Declaration of Human Rights, and the formation of the Commission on the Status of Women); conventions of particular concern to women (1949-1979); efforts to prevent prostitution and the exploitation of women; and efforts to eliminate discrimination against women. The second section provides a definition of concepts including "the status" and "a new human right." The third section traces UN efforts "From the International Women's Year (1975) to the UN Decade for Women (1976-1985)." Described are world conferences on women in Mexico City and Copenhagen that were a part of the series of world conferences convened by the UN during the "Second Development Decade." Topics related to other world conferences are presented in the fourth section, including the logic of the world conferences, the Population and the Food Conferences, other conferences, women and industrialization, and the 1984 International Conference on Population. The final section reviews treatment meted out to women's issues within the framework of the UN Development Decades. Appended are references; a list of bibliographies published prior to 1980; a selected list of publications since 1980; a list of acronyms and addresses; and annexes containing resolutions and recommendations a convention summary, and list of standards concerning economic and legal rights of women. (LH)

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What does the United Nations mean to women?

An NGO view
by
Hilkka Pietilä
Secretary-General
Finnish United Nations Association

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UNITED NATIONS
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GENEVA

NGLS/Geneva

Palais des Nations
CH-1211 Geneva 10
Switzerland

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AUTHOR'S PREFACE

Over the years, issues concerning and of interest to women have taken on new forms and received varying treatment by the United Nations itself and the Specialized Agencies and organs of the UN System.

The principle of the equality of men and women was already recognised in the United Nations Charter and the Universal Declaration of Human Rights.

In the 1950s and 1960s, women's issues were seen mainly as questions of human rights, and thus were discussed only in the Commission on the Status of Women and the Third Committee of the UN General Assembly, which deals with social and humanitarian matters.

In the 1970s, the perspective changed decisively. The key position of women, especially in connection with population and food issues, became more generally recognised - since all efforts to relieve or solve problems in these fields reflected the key role played by women. Although the importance of women was not yet fully perceived when the International Development Strategy for the UN's Second Development Decade was drafted at the end of the 1960s, by 1972 the decision to declare an International Women's Year - 1975 - had been taken and, throughout the decade, women's issues came to the fore in several world conferences convened by the UN to study and adopt specific plans of action for the solution of major problems of world development. Thus, it was during the 1970s that the UN agenda really started specifically to address the problems of that half of humankind: women.

In the UN's early decades then, women were seen as objects, for whose protection and rights recommendations were made and conventions enacted. In the 1970s, the formula was to "integrate women into development"; characteristically, they were seen as resources and their contributions were sought to enhance the development process and make it more efficient. For this purpose, it was necessary to improve the status, nutrition, health and education of women. It was often claimed to be "a waste of human resources" if women were not fully integrated in development efforts. Such terms have a clear connotation: women are a resource to be exploited as effectively as possible. The perennial nature of their contribution to the well-being of their people was still not recognised within the development context.

In the International Development Strategy for the UN's Third Development Decade, a trend towards seeing women as equals ("as agents and as beneficiaries in all sectors and at all levels of the development process") finally emerges. May we thus assume that women may finally have the opportunity to give their views as to the kind of development they would like to see in the future?

Hilkka Pietilä

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A. HUMAN RIGHTS FOR WOMEN

1. The last colony

"Both within and outside the UN system, women face a colonial situation in the job field. Their position is reminiscent of that of citizens of colonial countries and occupied territories who were denied high positions in their governments. As a member of the Public Service Commission for eight years of a country on the verge of independence and soon after, I, together with my colleagues, was faced with the task of replacing European civil servants in senior positions with Africans and Asians. The greatest assistance was obtained from Europeans who were competent, emotionally secure and could hold their own in any society. Some of their colleagues branded them as eccentric and opportunist, traitors to the cause of European Superiority and, curiously also, to the cause of orderly African advancement which they felt should properly take about half a century at least to achieve. Men who firmly draw attention to discrimination against women risk a similar fate.

"Many obstacles and hindrances to the promotion of local colonial people were put forward. The description and denigration they gave to qualified Afro-Asians sound very much as those now given against qualified women. They were said to lack initiative, although professionally competent; they were unreliable, unpredictable and sometimes irrational and untruthful; they lacked punctuality and imagination and could not be depended on in a crisis; they endangered the safe and good running of the organization; they needed many years of training before they could be expected to hold high positions."

These thoughts were expressed by Davidson Nicol, Executive Director of the United Nations Institute for Training and Research (UNITAR) in the special issue of UNITAR News for International Women's Year.

He also stated:

"It seems to me that among the obstacles which have to be faced in seeking equality at work between men and women are the masculine fear of the consequent competitiveness which this will bring and the female rage, often justifiable, at male prejudice, which may lead to extreme and obscurantist demands. It is sometimes difficult to preserve a balanced point of view. There is no doubt, however, that great injustice is being done to competent women in every phase of national and international life."

Dr. Nicol went on to say that "there must be a rapid decolonisation in the minds and attitudes of men":

"Women, like the oppressed colonial, must in the end fight and win the struggle themselves since in doing so they not only gain strength but achieve greater self-respect and thus conquer feelings of inferiority and unworthiness which tradition has imposed on them for centuries."

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It is appropriate in UN discussions to draw parallels between racial discrimination and discrimination against women. In this way, the latter is slotted into a well-defined, duly recognised framework, condemned by the UN. Indeed, whether based on race, colour, culture, language, religion or sex, inequality and discrimination often take very similar forms in practice. However, many specific characteristics of discrimination against women do not occur elsewhere: sex attitudes, beliefs, prejudices and myths are much more deeply rooted in the basic structures of cultures and human behaviour than are many other customs, norms and traditions.

2. In the UN Charter ...

A mandate to bring about equality between the sexes is already clear in the UN Charter, where "the Peoples of the United Nations determine to reaffirm faith in fundamental human rights, in the dignity and worth of the human person, in the equal rights of men and women ..." In article 1 of the Charter, it is further stated that "the Purposes of the United Nations are ... to achieve international cooperation in promoting and encouraging respect for human rights and for fundamental freedoms for all without distinction as to race, sex, language or religion".

At the very first session of the UN General Assembly, a Commission was appointed to draft the Universal Declaration of Human Rights. By chance a woman, Eleanor Roosevelt, presided that Commission. When the Declaration was adopted in 1948 it contained the words: "All human beings are born free and equal in dignity and rights". The second Article is even more specific: "Everyone is entitled to all the rights and freedoms set forth in this Declaration, without distinction of any kind, such as race, colour, sex, language ...".

Based on the principles of the Charter and the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, much work has been done to make further, more binding, concrete and precise provisions on equality of the sexes. Originally, this work took place mainly in the International Labour Organization, where the Conventions on Equal Remuneration for Work of Equal Value, and Discrimination in Respect of Employment and Occupation, were adopted in the 1950s. In the United Nations itself, during the 1940s and 1950s, women's issues were debated only in bodies specifically concerned with human rights.

The Commission on the Status of Women had, however, been established in 1947, with a mandate to study and prepare recommendations on human rights issues of special concern to women. At first, the creation of a commission specifically devoted to women's issues drew some criticism, but the work it has carried out over the years has amply demonstrated its importance. Had the questions of equality between the sexes and women's status been on the agenda only of the Commission on Human Rights - along with so many other issues - they would hardly have received the necessary attention.

3. The Commission on the Status of Women

The first task of the Commission on the Status of Women was to determine in which conditions and situations all over the world the most severe forms of discrimination against women occurred. Four fields, in particular, were found to give cause for concern:

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* political rights and the possibility of exercising them;
* legal rights of women, both as individuals and as family members;
* access of girls and women to education and training, including vocational training;
* working life.

In recent years, recommendations and conventions have been prepared and adopted in all four. A total of 44 conventions relating specifically to women have been adopted by the United Nations, Unesco and ILO. Figure 1 lists some of the most significant and Figure 2 gives an idea of the many different stages by which an issue becomes the subject of a UN Convention and is then, finally, implemented at the national level. at the

Figure 1

Conventions of Particular Concern to Women

Adopted		In force	Ratifications (as of 1984)
1949	Convention for the Suppression of Traffic in Persons and the Exploitation of the Prostitution of Others	1951	53
1951	Equal Remuneration for Men and Women Workers for Work of Equal Value (ILO No.100)	1953	103
1952	Convention on the Political Rights of Women	1954	90
1958	Discrimination in Respect of Employment and Occupation (ILO No.111)	1960	104
1960	International Convention against Discrimination in Education (Unesco)	1962	71
1962	Convention on Consent to Marriage, Minimum Age of Marriage and Registration of Marriages	1964	33
1979	Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women	1981	56

The subjects and history of these Conventions are a sad reflection on the central problems of women in the 20th century. Political rights for women, for instance, were in force in only 30 of the 51 countries which signed the UN Charter in 1945. Over the 40 years of the UN's existence, partly prompted by the UN Convention on the Political Rights of Women, most countries have granted women the opportunity to participate in politics. By 1983, 90 countries had ratified the Convention and, in fact, there are now only nine countries in the world where these rights still do not exist.

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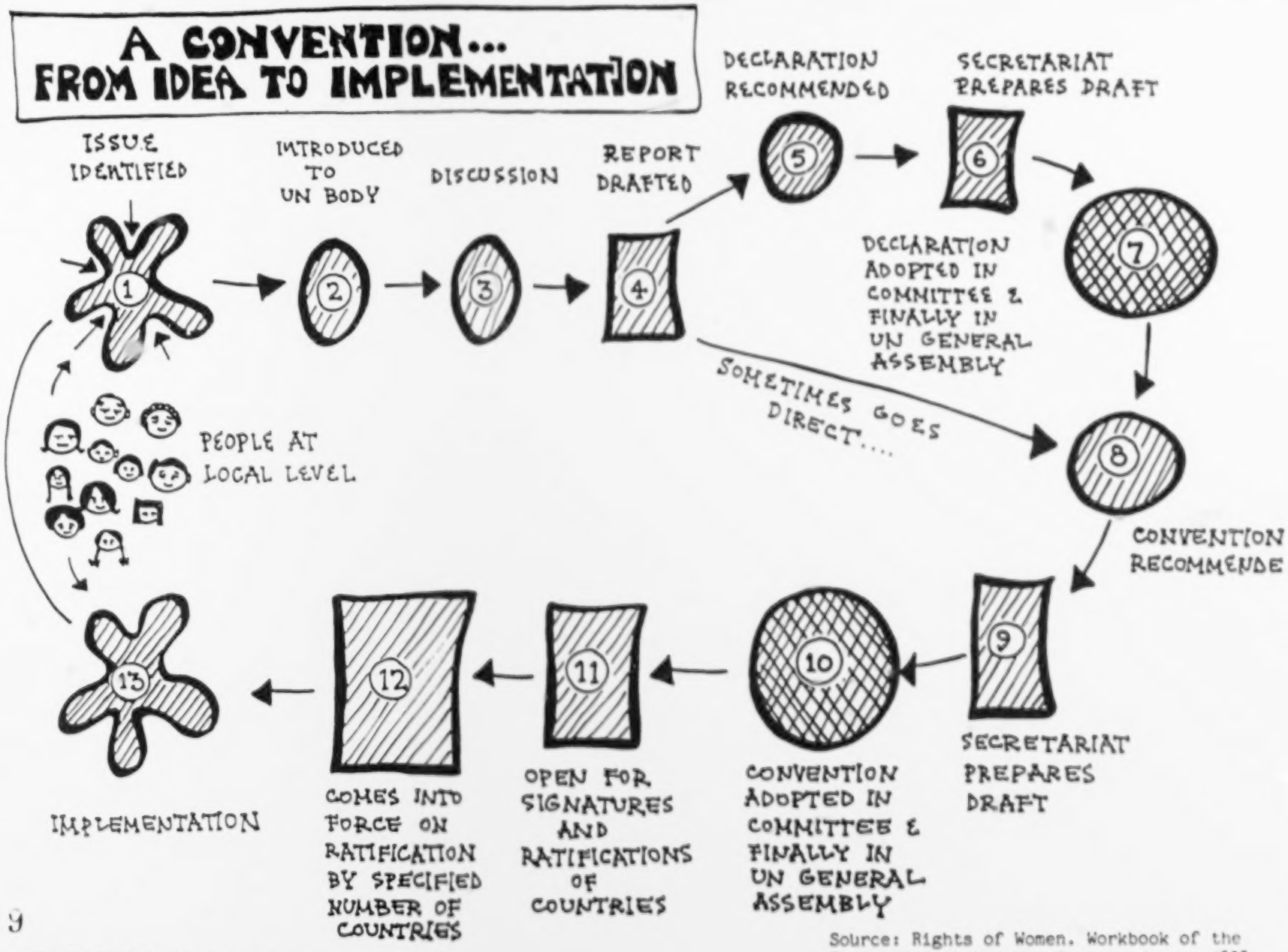

Figure 2

Source: Rights of Women. Workbook of the International Women's Tribune Centre 1983

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Also pointedly evocative of the situation of women were the reasons which led to the adoption of the Convention on Consent to Marriage, Minimum Age of Marriage and Registration of Marriages, in 1962. At that time, in much of the world, women still had nothing to say in the choice of their marriage partner or the age at which their marriage took place; they were mere commodities in the hands of their parents and families, who had full power to decide upon their fate. In many countries, women had no rights within marriage either: they could be abandoned at any time and thrown out of their homes and families. The provision on obligatory registration of marriages was, therefore, necessary in order that the rights of the wife be officially recognised.

4. Traffic in women

Efforts to prevent prostitution and exploitation of women through procurement provide a good example of attempts to solve a concrete, practical problem by means of international conventions. Widespread attention has been focused on this problem since the middle of the last century, when it was known as "sexual slavery". The women's movement and a number of non-governmental organizations had already made a proposal to the League of Nations about prohibition of sexual slavery and a comprehensive document was drafted for adoption by the League which, unfortunately, did not pass through before the outbreak of the Second World War.

The issue came up again in the United Nations soon after its foundation and, in 1949, the Convention for the Suppression of the Traffic in Persons and the Exploitation of the Prostitution of Others was adopted. It came into force in 1951 and, by 1983, had been ratified by 53 governments. The Convention commits signatories to the punishment of any person who procures or entices another into prostitution or who owns or manages a brothel, to the supervision of employment agencies with a view to preventing traffic in women and to the provision of rehabilitation for the victims of prostitution.

However, although this Convention was adopted over 30 years ago, it has still not been possible - either by national or international measures - to end even such clear and concrete practices as prostitution and the exploitation of others by prostitution. On the contrary. Prostitution has become big business, "traffic in persons" has taken on new and more sophisticated forms and extended on an unforeseen scale to become an international trade, one of the latest forms of which is the procurement of submissive and adaptable wives from South-East Asia for Western men (since Western women have become all too independent and demanding!). And massive expansion of intercontinental tourism, coupled with the deteriorating situation of women in many developing countries, have made sex holidays an ever-more-flourishing phenomenon.

If nothing else, however, the Convention does give international justification to attempts to spotlight these and other related problems (such as sexual harassment and exploitation of women workers in trans-national corporations in developing countries), and, like all other inter-governmental conventions, provides a strong, legitimate basis for people to put pressure on government to take adequate remedial measures.

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5. The Convention on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women

By far the most important of the conventions on the status of women is the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (1), which was adopted in 1979 and entered into force in 1981, following ratification by the required 20 countries. A concise and comprehensive conclusion to the long process which has taken place within the UN System to incorporate the principles of women's rights and equality between the sexes in the provisions of international law, it includes, in their most precise form, all provisions aiming at the elimination of discrimination against women previously covered by separate conventions. It also contains provisions covering issues omitted from earlier conventions. The different stages in this process are listed in Figure 3.

The Convention also provides for follow-up, obliging Member States to report to the UN Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women on the legislative and other steps taken to implement the provisions. Governments must first report to the Committee one year after the Convention has entered into force in their country, and every four years thereafter.

The case of Finland provides an example of how the Convention works in practice. The Finnish Government signed it in 1980 at the World Conference of the UN Decade for Women in Copenhagen, along with many other governments. However, it has not yet been able to ratify the Convention because certain aspects of Finnish national legislation do not conform (for example, the provisions of family law concerning the name to be borne by a married woman). Following the adoption of the Convention by the UN, and the Finnish Government's signature thereto, several Finnish organizations and activists were able to use the Convention as a basis on which to argue for the necessary changes in the law, and a new law on equality for men and women has been drafted. Thanks to the Convention there is pressure on the Government from two sides: the Finnish people, organizations and groups and the National Equality Council put pressure from inside, and UN expectations from outside. Finnish pressure groups do not hesitate to argue that the international image of the Finnish Government will be tarnished if the necessary changes in the laws are not enacted and the Convention ratified soon - at the very latest prior to the 1985 World Conference to Review and Appraise the Achievements of the UN Decade for Women. The names of countries which have ratified the Convention are presented in the UN General Assembly every year and will attract special attention at the Conference in Nairobi - as will those names which are missing.

Thus, international conventions and national legislation are ways of rectifying injustices and inequalities and may also, indirectly, bring about changes in attitudes. However, it often seems to be more difficult to change attitudes than laws. And the real changes will only take place when attitudes change.

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Figure 3

YEAR BY YEAR PROGRESS OF THE CONVENTION ON THE ELIMINATION OF ALL FORMS OF DISCRIMINATION AGAINST WOMEN

1945	United Nations Charter... reaffirms "faith in fundamental human rights ...in the equal rights of men and women..." Preamble
1947	The Commission on the Status of Women is established with the task of initiating and monitoring UN action on behalf of women.
1948	Universal Declaration of Human Rights...proclaims that "everyone is entitled to all the rights and freedoms set forth in this Declaration without distinction of any kind, such as race, colour, sex..." Article 2
1954	General Assembly...recognizes that women are "subject to ancient laws, customs and practises" which are inconsistent with the Declaration and calls on governments to "abolish" them. (Res. 843 (IX))
1963	General Assembly...noting continued discrimination, calls for a draft on a Declaration on the Elimination of Discrimination Against Women. (Res. 1921 (XVII))
1966	Commission...submits draft to General Assembly which returns it for revision, "bearing in mind the amendments which have been submitted." (Res. 2199 (XXI))
1967	General Assembly...adopts the revised Declaration "to ensure the universal recognition in law and in fact of the principle of equality of men and women." Res. 2263 (XXII)
1968	Economic and Social Council...initiates reporting system on implementation by governments of Declaration's provisions. (ECOSOC Res. 1325 (XLIV)).
1970	General Assembly...urges "the ratification of or accession to the relevant international instruments relating to the status of women. (Res. 2716 (XXV)).
1972	The UN Secretary General...asks the views of governments on the "nature and content of a new instrument."
1973	ECOSOC...appoints a 15-member working group to begin drafting a convention.
1975	International Women's Year World Plan of Action...calls for "the preparation and adoption of the convention on the elimination of discrimination against women with effective procedures for its implementation." (Item 198)
1977	General Assembly...appoints Working Group of the Whole "to continue consideration" of the draft. (Res. 32/136)
1978	General Assembly ...recommends the working group complete its task. (Res. 33/177)
1979	General Assembly...adopts completed draft, inviting signatures and ratifications. (Res. 13/180).
1981	Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women...enters into force with the required 20 ratifications.

Source: Rights of Women. Workbook of the International Women's Tribune Centre, 1983

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B. DEFINITIONS OF CONCEPTS

1. What does "the status" mean?

During the course of its work, the UN Commission on the Status of Women has questioned what the concept of "the status" actually means. Status in relation to what? How can status be measured? What is the yardstick? Usually the status of women is compared with that of men in terms of working life, education, access to services and benefits, opportunities to participate in decision-making and politics.

These questions became especially relevant at the end of the 1960s and the beginning of the 1970s, when growing interest was focused on the inter-relationships between family planning and the status of women. The issues of family planning and birth control came into UN discussions in connection with debates on population growth, which, particularly in the 1960s, was considered to be one of the major problems of developing countries. In 1965, the Commission on the Status of Women requested the UN Secretary-General to provide it "... with a report on the effect of the lack of family planning on the status of women ... and the relation between family planning and the status of women".

Following the declaration of 1974 as World Population Year and 1975 as International Women's Year, the importance of the links between family planning and the status of women loomed even larger. Studies on the world's population problems and the factors influencing them revealed more and more the key position of women in birth control and limitation of population growth. At the same time, in preparations for International Women's Year, the right of and possibility for women to control the number and spacing of their children emerged as an issue of decisive importance to the status of women and to all aspects of their lives.

It is evident that the status of women cannot here be defined merely by comparison with the status of men. The crux of the issue is whether a woman has the right and the means to control what happens to her own body. From time immemorial, women have, in this respect, been at the mercy of men, prevailing cultural traditions and nature. Giving birth, breast-feeding and nurturing of children has always put very definite limits to whatever else a woman could, or would like to, do with her life.

In response to the request of the Commission on the Status of Women, the UN Secretary-General appointed Mrs. Helvi Sipilä of Finland as Special Rapporteur for a study on the inter-relationship between the status of women and family planning (2). In her report (E/CN.6/575, 27/11/1973), Ms. Sipilä discusses the concept of "the status of women" rather thoroughly and attempts to define and pinpoint it more clearly than beforehand:

> "Status usually refers to the position or positions a person or group holds in the structure of a society - in its educational institution, its occupational structure, its political system, in the family, and so on. To these various positions - a number of which may be occupied by a single individual simultaneously in his or her capacity as a member of several social groups - are ascribed varying degrees of power, privilege and prestige. Thus, the concept of status implies a hierarchical arrangement of positions. Each position also involves a set of rights and obligations which the occupant is expected to fulfil.

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> "When we speak of the 'status of women', then, we are speaking of the conjunction of positions a woman occupies at any one point in time, as a worker, student, wife, mother, church member, political worker, or whatever, and of the rights and duties she is expected to exercise in her active role as occupant of these positions. It is generally accepted that women are discriminated against and that men have more prestige, power and privileges in almost all societies. But the direct measurement of status is a difficult and complex problem which hinders investigations of the causes and consequences of this particular form of stratification."

One of the difficulties was to produce a cross-culturally valid definition of the status of women. Such statistical indicators as life expectancy, years of formal schooling, labour force participation rates, etc., do not always reveal the actual conditions of women in all societies. No internationally-comparable social indicators were available.

> "After all, status is not a fixed, rigid concept but one that changes over time. Not only do women occupy different positions in the social structure as they pass through the life cycle but the very bases upon which the community ascribes power, privilege and prestige may also change. The difficulties here are compounded by the fact that the definition itself of what constitutes 'high' or 'low' status depends on the perspective of the observer. How does one deal, for example, with the situation in which a woman's prestige in the eyes of her family and her community rises with every child she bears, or a man is ashamed when his wife takes work outside the home? The 'objective' researcher may define the first woman's 'status' as low and the second's as higher, in direct contradiction of the norms of the woman's own social situation."

The report seeks a definition which would be as culture-free as possible and enable the differentiation of the status of women from that of men in a given society. It concludes that the best method to date is to assess the status of an individual high or low according to the actual control that he/she has over his/her own life.

> "To what extent do women as compared to men have access to knowledge, to economic resources, to political power, and what degree of personal autonomy do these resources permit? A related and more quantifiable approach is to assess the range of choices or options available to women as compared to men in the same society (or to women in different societies or subgroups) in the areas of education, employment, political life, family life and other relevant areas. Both approaches are based on the assumption that low status derives from a lack of control over material or social resources and a lack of choice in the unfolding of one's destiny."

2. A new human right

The fact that a study on family planning from the point of view of women necessitated a redefinition of the whole concept of "status" indicates how very crucial this question is to women. However, the subject would hardly have received the attention it deserves, even at this late day

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and age, had not the problems created by rapid population growth in developing countries brought it into the limelight.

By the end of the 1960s, access to family planning was beginning to be recognised as a new basic human right, which also indicates the growing importance of the issue. It was mentioned for the first time in this connection in the Declaration of Teheran, which resulted from the International Conference on Human Rights in 1968, and the following year was included in the Declaration on Social Progress and Development by the UN General Assembly. More recently, it has been incorporated into several resolutions and documents such as the World Population Plan of Action (1974) and the Declaration of Mexico and Plan of Action of the IWY (1975) (3). It is included, as an obligatory provision, in the Convention on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women (1979), where it is stipulated:

> "States Parties shall take all appropriate measures to eliminate discrimination against women in all matters relating to marriage and family relations and in particular shall ensure, on a basis of equality of men and women ...
>
> - the same rights to decide freely and responsibly on the number and spacing of their children and to have access to the information, education and means to enable them to exercise these rights."

The recognition of the right to family planning and access to the information and practical means necessary to exercise this right is a historic step, frequently cited as the single most important factor in recent years in the improvement of the status of women. With this right as a practical, everyday asset women the world over have moved into a new age: one in which they may eventually have the right to control their own lives.

The ability to choose how many children she will have and to space their births appropriately also provides women with the opportunity to exercise other human rights more fully than before. Firstly, they will be able to plan and organise their lives in such a way as to obtain education and training; better education will enhance their economic independence and, hence, their participation in the cultural and political lives of their country. Family planning also helps families to plan and improve their living standards so that they will be able to provide better conditions, education and health care to those children they choose to have.

Along with the right to family planning, another basic human right becomes a reality: the right to be born a wanted child. The most felicitous start possible to one's life, this may have far more meaning than has ever been realised. And it is one right for which those principally concerned will never have been able themselves to fight!

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C. FROM THE IWY (1975) TO THE UN DECADE FOR WOMEN (1976-1985)

This, then, was the background to the process which has been unfolding since the beginning of the 1970s. When population and food problems aggravated at that time, it was finally realised that women in the developing countries were a key factor.

> "These are the women (the more than 500 million women illiterates) upon whom the success of our population policies, our food programmes and our total development efforts ultimately rely. The success of these policies depends, in other words, on those who are least equipped to carry them out." (Helvi Sipilä in The Times, 23/4/75)

It is a woman who gives birth; her motivation and the possibilities she has to limit the number of her children are therefore crucial elements in the solution of population problems. In Africa, it is the woman who, by her personal contribution in the form of labour, provides the staple food for her family. Thus, these two major basic problems - food and population - have their roots in the way she lives. Women have to reconcile their work (subsistence farming, collecting wood and carrying water for the essential needs of daily life) with the time spent delivering and nurturing children. Development aimed at satisfaction of basic needs depended upon the limited resources and unrealised potential of women. But before this aspect of the situation was clearly perceived, the Second Development Decade was far advanced. And even now, one-and-a-half decades later, it is still not perceived everywhere.

1. International Women's Year (1975)

An oral tradition in the UN family says that the seeds of IWY came from Finland. A non-governmental organization, the Women's International Democratic Federation, first proposed the declaration of a women's year - and WIDF's president then was a prominent Finnish parliamentarian, Hertta Kuusinen. Representing her organization as an observer at the 1972 session of the UN Commission on the Status of Women, Ms. Kuusinen, together with a number of other NGO observers, drafted a proposal which she convinced the Roumanian representative on the Commission to present. The Finnish representative on the Commission at that time, Helvi Sipilä, seconded the proposal and, on Leap Year Day in 1972, the Commission decided to recommend to the General Assembly the declaration of 1975 as International Women's Year.

Thus, IWY is one example of an NGO initiative taken up by the UN System - one which, on this occasion exceeded all expectations, developing into a process with dimensions and repercussions such as the initiators hardly dared to dream of.

The UN General Assembly was less enthusiastic about the idea of IWY when the recommendation came up in the Third Committee. This scepticism was partly due to proliferation of so-called "theme" years (which had already been somewhat numerous) and partly to doubts as to the wisdom of singling women's issues out for special attention. The recommendation was, however, unanimously adopted in December 1972.

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Women in agricultural production

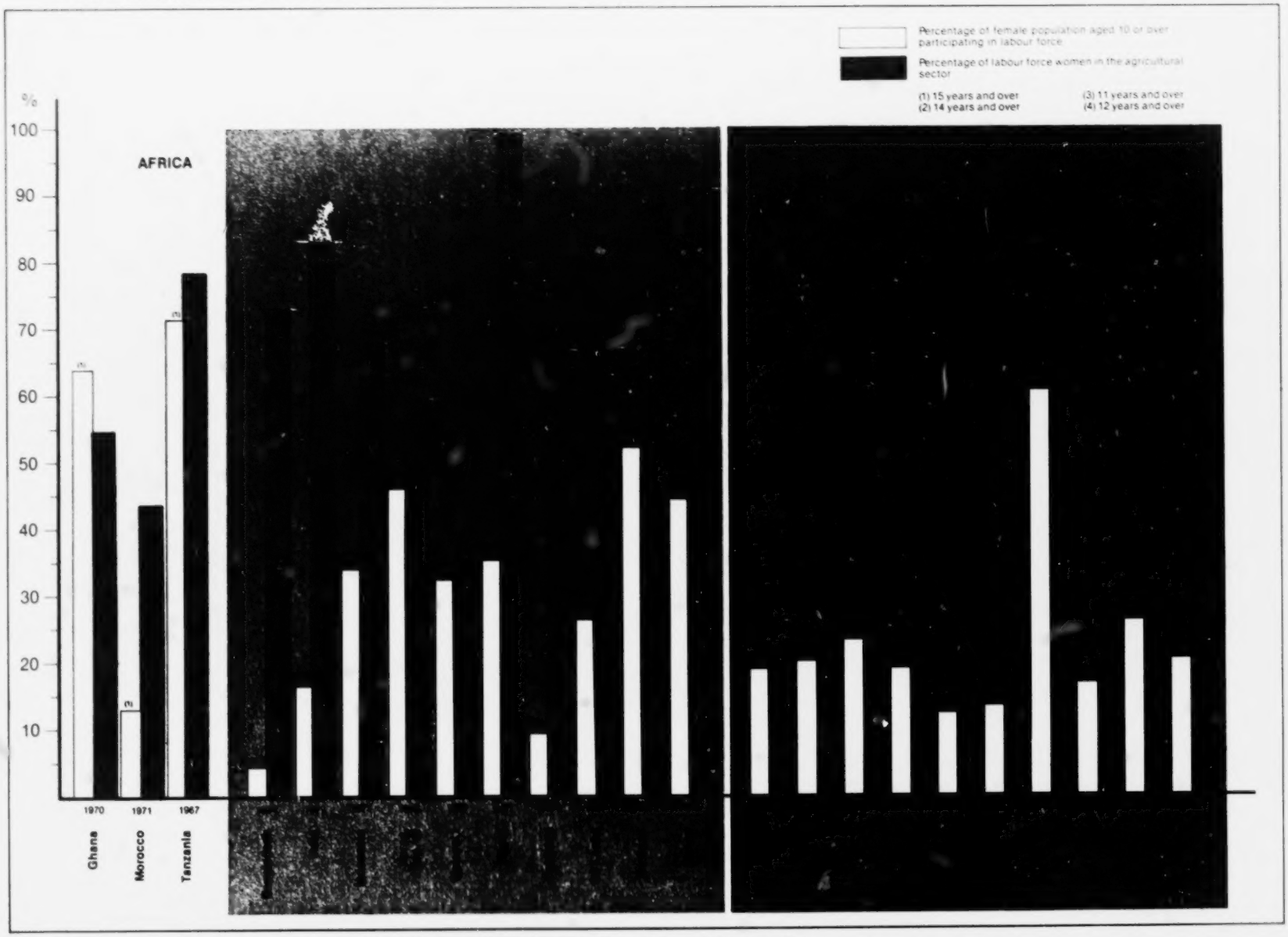

Figure 4

Source: Revised illustrative statistics on women in selected developing countries. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1980.

(Reprinted in Women in Agriculture, FAO, Rome, 1983)

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By then, the position of women in the UN Secretariat had also become an issue. The proportion of women occupying senior posts was very low and no woman, so far, had been appointed to any top job. Calls to rectify this situation were considered by the new Secretary-General, Kurt Waldheim, sufficiently disturbing to warrant a search for competent women candidates to fill several key vacancies. Thus, Helvi Sipilä was appointed the UN's first female Assistant Secretary-General, in the autumn of 1972.

The decision to celebrate 1975 as International Women's Year and the appointment of the first female Assistant Secretary-General in the same year was mere coincidence. However, both events flagged the beginning of a new "women's era" for the UN and reflected the emergence of the new women's movement in Western countries.

2. The advance influence of IWY

Few doubt that IWY was the most successful of the many theme years the UN had held thus far. As already noted, it came at a time when many other factors were converging in the same direction; the problems of women had finally to be taken seriously and their role in the development of each and every country recognised. IWY thus became a framework within which these issues could be accorded global attention and, at the same time, it highlighted the forgotten dimensions of many issues in a way which would not otherwise have been possible.

IWY, in fact, had significant influence before it even commenced. Preparations for the World Population Conference (1974) were already well under way when the decision on IWY was taken and - hard though it is to believe - gave no recognition to women's role in population questions. This alarmed a number of NGOs and caught the attention of the new Assistant Secretary-General. Early in 1974, these NGOs, together with Ms. Sipilä's Division on Social Development and Humanitarian Affairs, organised an unofficial preparatory meeting (International Forum on the Role of Women in Population and Development), attended by a prominent female personality from each of 116 countries.

This meeting turned out to be an eye-opening event after which it was no longer possible to ignore the link between women and population. Many of the women who participated in that international "lobbying" meeting were later on the delegations of their respective countries to the World Population Conference in Bucarest. Thanks in no small measure to their efforts, the World Population Plan of Action gave appropriate recognition to the importance of population policies to women and to the role women had to play in these issues. It was realised that no population policy could be effective without the involvement of women and unless due consideration be given to their interests.

Another important conference was held in 1974: the World Food Conference, which took place in Rome. Partly due to interest generated by the upcoming IWY and partly to a slowly-emerging general awareness of the vital contribution made by women to world food supplies. It was recognised that the world food situation could not be improved without full integration of women into the policies decided upon. However, this recognition has not been appropriately implemented in practice and the food situation, therefore, has not improved. Again, NGOs played a prominent role in addressing this issue at the Rome conference.

Extensive preparations for IWY were launched in most UN Member States and in the Specialized Agencies of the UN System. Regional preparatory conferences were organised by all UN Economic Commissions, and the process culminated in the World Conference of the IWY in mid-1975 in Mexico. The decision-making bodies of most of the UN agencies and organs approved specific resolutions in those of their fields of competence where women's aspects had obvious relevance. IWY was the first of the UN theme years for which extensive preparations were undertaken at all levels: national, regional and international.

3. What happened in Mexico City?

The decision to organise a world IWY conference was taken somewhat tardily. Only a year before, in the Spring of 1974, had ECOSOC passed a resolution to that effect. The time available for preparatory work was, therefore, extremely short compared with that available for many other such conferences. (The World Population Conference, for example, was prepared over a period of almost three years.)

It was customary for a comprehensive plan of action to be prepared for the world conferences of the 1970s. This took place in several stages so that drafts could be sent to Member States for comments, following receipt of which revised drafts were prepared. In this way, the views of governments were rather fully incorporated in the conference documents. There was no time for the draft plan of action for the women's conference to be drawn up in this way. It was the first such document the world had seen to concentrate specifically on problems and concerns of women, covering all possible aspects of their lives from food, health and education to family planning and political participation. Work on it had to be limited to the Secretariat and a small preparatory committee of 23 Member States, but the substance for the World Plan of Action could be drawn from the recommendations and resolutions adopted on women's issues in the various UN bodies over the preceding 30 years.

Delegations of 133 governments took part in the Mexico City Conference. They represented countries with very different levels of development and a wide variety of cultures, traditions and customs. Since Member States had had no opportunity to express their views and aspirations on the World Plan of Action in advance, all these were poured out at the Conference itself. The original draft contained 205 paragraphs; participants proposed almost 900 amendments and additions. In a conference of two weeks' duration, it was impossible to handle so many proposals and the major part of the Plan of Action was thus adopted as it had been drafted.

4. The World Plan of Action for women

Irrespective of these problems, the WPA became a document of the utmost importance. The impact of its aims and obligations on development was already felt in the latter part of the 1970s in member countries and the UN System. Annexed to the WPA were separate Regional Plans of Action for Asia and Africa (prepared and adopted beforehand by the regional preparatory conferences). Covering more geographically-limited (and thus more unified) areas, they are, by nature, more specific and concrete than is the WPA.

The atmosphere at, and passions aroused by, the World Conference of IWY reflected not only the issues on the agenda but also the historical background against which the conference took place and the prevailing world situation. It was the first UN conference in which a majority (73%) of delegates were women and where as many as 113 delegations were headed by a woman. (Although it should be noted that the proportion of men among delegates was higher (27%) than is the usual proportion of women at other UN conferences!) Thus, hopes and expectations were high - one might even say exaggerated or over-enthusiastic - and this was one reason for the flood of amendments and resolutions. To participate as a delegate in the Conference was, in itself, a great experience for many women, most of whom had no previous experience and knowledge of the proceedings of such intergovernmental gatherings. In such circumstances, the outcome of the Conference was as good as could be expected and, indeed, constituted a landmark.

As adopted, the World Plan of Action for the Implementation of the Objectives of IWY sets targets and proposes actions at both national and international levels for the decade 1976-1985. For the first half of the decade, until 1980, these are specific and concrete (see Figure 5). It was proposed that a second world conference be organised in 1980 to review and appraise implementation.

In December of the same year, the recommendations of the World Conference were approved by the UN General Assembly, which also declared 1976-1985 as the UN Decade for Women, with the same themes selected for IWY: Equality, Development, Peace. Throughout the Decade, governments, inter-governmental organizations (in particular the UN agencies), non-governmental organizations and other institutions and communities around the world would strive to implement the WPA.

5. The World Mid-Decade Conference, 1980

In accordance with the decision made in Mexico, a second world conference was organised in Copenhagen in 1980, to review and appraise to what extent the targets set in the WPA had been attained during the first half of the UN Decade for Women and to prepare a more precise Plan of Action for the remainder of the Decade.

One effect of the WPA was that the female perspective was recognised in some of the other world conferences of the 1970s and in resolutions adopted by the Specialized Agencies. In the UN General Assembly, women's issues were no longer discussed only in the Third Committee (Social and Humanitarian) but also in others, notably the Second Committee (Economic Cooperation and Development). This was positive indication of unfolding awareness that attempts to promote the status of women are little more than mere window-dressing unless the appropriate material basis is created.

The UN Decade for Women also speeded up work on the Convention on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women, the final text of which was adopted in the General Assembly in 1979. Member States were then invited to sign and ratify it in due course, and 60 of them signed it during the Copenhagen Conference.

During the first five years of the Decade, the UN System undertook systematic collection of data on the situation and circumstances of women all over the world, thereby making available a mass of new, up-to-date

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Figure 5

WORLD PLAN OF ACTION FOR THE IMPLEMENTATION OF THE OBJECTIVES OF THE INTERNATIONAL WOMEN'S YEAR

Minimum objectives to be achieved in the first half of the International Women's Decade

(a) Marked increase in literacy and civic education of women, especially in rural areas;

(b) The extension of co-educational technical and vocational training in basic skills to women and men in the industrial and agricultural sectors;

(c) Equal access at every level of education, compulsory primary school education and the measures necessary to prevent school drop-outs;

(d) Increased employment opportunities for women, reduction of unemployment and increased efforts to eliminate discrimination in the terms and conditions of employment;

(e) The establishment and increase of the infrastructural services required in both rural and urban areas;

(f) The enactment of legislation on voting and eligibility for election on equal terms with men and equal opportunity and conditions of employment including remuneration, and on equality in legal capacity and the exercise thereof;

(g) To encourage a greater participation of women in policy-making positions at the local, national and international levels;

(h) Increased provision for comprehensive measures for health education and services, sanitation, nutrition, family education, family planning and other welfare services;

(i) Provision for parity in the exercise of civil, social and political rights such as those pertaining to marriage, citizenship and commerce;

(j) Recognition of the economic value of women's work in the home in domestic food production and marketing and voluntary activities not traditionally renumerated;

(k) To direct formal, non-formal and life-long education towards the re-evaluation of the man and woman, in order to ensure their full realization as individuals in the family and in society;

(l) The promotion of women's organizations as an interim measure within workers' organizations and educational, economic and professional institutions;

(m) The development of modern rural technology, cottage industry, pre-school day centres, time and energy saving devices so as to help reduce the heavy work load of women, particularly those living in rural sectors and for the urban poor and thus facilitate the full participation of women in community, national and international affairs;

(n) The establishment of an inter-disciplinary and multi-sectoral machinery within the government for accelerating the achievement of equal opportunities for women and their full integration into national life.

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background material. The approaching conference also accelerated preparation and implementation of national programmes to ensure equality between men and women.

The redefined Plan of Action for the second part of the Decade (1980-1985) was adopted in Copenhagen. In addition to the overall themes of the Decade, the document focused especially on problems of employment, health and education, from the women's viewpoint. A decision was taken to convene a third world conference, in 1985, to review and appraise achievements over the Decade as a whole and to draw up guidelines for the future.

6. Hopes and disappointments

Many participants' hopes and expectations were dashed in Copenhagen too, due in no small measure to the approaches adopted by the traditional political blocs. Market economy countries stressed equality between men and women as the key factor in the struggle to improve the latter's status, while developing countries considered overall acceleration of economic and social development the most important thing from the point of view of both women and men; they took the view that Western-type equality could only become a reality when the basic material needs of all people had been satisfied. Socialist countries held that equality between men and women was already a fact of life there and therefore emphasized at the women's conferences the same political issues they emphasized in other UN fora.

These characteristic differences of opinion lead one to ask whether the real concerns of women are heard in such inter-governmental conferences. Even when the majority of delegates are women, delegations will express their official government line - and in how many countries does does official policy really take account of women's views and rights?

A disappointment for many in Copenhagen was precisely the fact that general political issues came to the forefront: those same issues (Palestine, racial discrimination, Zionism, etc.) which governments were disputing ad infinitum elsewhere. The big powers were playing their power game, the developing countries fought for more equitable international trade and a new international economic order. Even when greater emphasis was placed by Western countries on questions of sexual equality this was construed by some as a useful ploy to avoid discussion of politically-embarrassing issues!

The fact that a delegation has a female majority does not, therefore, necessarily ensure that it will voice the real concerns of women.

7. Women's own meetings

As a result, the true voice of women was all the more clearly audible at the parallel NGO conferences: the IWY Tribune in Mexico City and the NGO Forum in Copenhagen. While the number of official delegates to both governmental conferences was around 1,200, there were some 6,000 participants in the NGO meeting in Mexico City and some 7,000 at that in Copenhagen - and almost all of them women!

The fact that the two parallel conferences gathered such unforeseen numbers (more than at any previous UN world conference) proved more than

anything else that women all over the world are active and interested in their own issues. In the literally hundreds of meetings, panels, symposia, free gatherings, etc., which took place under the auspices of these parallel conferences, women really spoke out about their problems, fears and worries. Of course, disputes and disagreements were also expressed, but, at the same time, the ability of women to communicate and to meet as sisters, irrespective of differences of political and cultural backgrounds, was amply demonstrated.

Many groups and individuals went to parallel conferences with the hope of being able to influence the resolutions of the official, inter-governmental conference. On the spot, however, this is very difficult and chances are rare. Non-governmental organizations or independent groups have to master lobbying techniques extremely well and understand UN conference procedures clearly in order to make an impact on the official debates. This was a bitter lesson for many participants in the parallel conferences.

The best way to influence a government's policy is beforehand, back home in each country, through measures such as lobbying, political pressure, contacts with influential persons, etc. International cooperation and coordination between national groups in different countries is needed in order to bring bring simultaneous pressure on governments in a number of countries, thereby enhancing chances of success at the inter-governmental level.

NGO preparations for the 1985 Conference of the UN Decade for Women seem to indicate that these lessons have been learned. Many activities were already underway almost a year ahead. If all the concerned women's organizations, researchers, action groups and movements of various kinds are able to coordinate their work and join forces internationally, then maybe, at long last, women will really be heard at an official conference too.

8. New UN organs

A secretariat unit for the Commission on the Status of Women is located in the Centre for Social Development and Humanitarian Affairs. Known as the Branch for the Advancement of Women, it is the oldest organ dealing with women's issues in the UN itself. Under the auspices of the UN Decade for Women, new organs have been established and existing ones strengthened in other UN institutions. The UN Development Programme (UNDP), the Food and Agriculture Organization of the UN (FAO), the International Labour Organization (ILO) and the UN Children's Fund (UNICEF) are among those UN institutions which have increased their capacity to deal with women's questions. The UN Institute for Training and Research (UNITAR), over the years, has organised several conferences and surveys to study and discuss women's issues from various angles and has produced a number of interesting reports (for example on the status of women in the UN Secretariat and the consequences of science and technology for women).

The new UN organs established during the Decade for Women to deal specifically with women's issues are:

* The Voluntary Fund for the UN Decade for Women (VDFW). Originally set up for International Women's Year and transformed into a permanent structure immediately thereafter, it provides supplementary financial and technical support for development and research programmes for and by women, particularly in the Least Developed Countries.

* The International Research and Training Institute for the Advancement of Women (INSTRAW) was created in 1980 and settled in its permanent location in the Dominican Republic in 1983. It collects, processes and disseminates information on research, training and action programmes related to women and conducts research, at the international level, on sociological and development problems involving women.

* The African Training and Research Centre for Women (ATRCW), linked to the Economic Commission for Africa in Addis Ababa, and the Asia and Pacific Centre for Women and Development, linked to the Economic Commission for Asia and the Pacific in Kuala Lumpur, are regional structures established in 1975 and 1977 respectively.

D. A SERIES OF WORLD CONFERENCES

The world conferences on women in Mexico City and Copenhagen were part of the series of world conferences convened by the UN System during the Second Development Decade: the 1970s, and continuing in the 1980s. Thus, they were not unique in themselves.

The purpose of the series was to map out the global situation in various specific problem areas and to draw up long-term plans of action in the respective fields. The integration of women, their contributions and problems came to the fore in several conferences other than those in Mexico and Denmark. This can be explained not only by the obligations of International Women's Year and the UN Decade for Women; it was, quite simply, no longer possible to ignore women's links to the substantive areas under consideration. It is also the reason why the impact of the women's year and decade has probably been greater than that of any other UN theme year or decade.

1. The logic of the world conferences

At the request of the UN Department of International Economic and Social Affairs, an American researcher, Ingrid Palmer, undertook an assessment of the ways in which women's role in the development process was approached and analysed in 12 world conferences held during the 1970s (5). Her report was published as a background document for the World Conference of the UN Decade for Women in Copenhagen in 1980 (A/CONF.94/19). It begins with a general observation: women's issues, in fact, received more attention at the World Population Conference and the World Food Conference, held immediately before the 1975 IWY, than in those held immediately after IWY and the adoption of the World Plan of Action to implement its objectives. However, by the end of the 1970s, women's issues were again attracting increased attention.

The emphasis placed at the beginning of the decade on the role of women in connection with population and food problems (without which it would have been impossible to get a true picture of either the population or the food situation, let alone find ideas to improve them) no doubt paved the way to recognition of women's role in development as a whole. However, in other conferences, where women's links were less obvious (or were not acknowledged), recognition of women remained accidental and it was only towards the end of the 1970s - when the impact of the WPA and the obligations of the Decade began to be felt - that greater attention was again focused on the feminine aspects of the matters under discussion.

Ingrid Palmer's report sheds interesting light on some of the factors which proved decisive in determining whether or not women's aspects came out at the various conferences.

2. The Population Conference and the Food Conference

As already noted, it was these two Conferences which first directed the spotlight on women's issues, and not only because of the very close links of women to the subjects under study. The fact that the newly-appointed Assistant Secretary-General, Helvi Sipilä, had thoroughly studied the relationship between the status of women and family planning and, as one of her first tasks, drew the attention of those concerned with the preparatory process for the Population Conference to the role of women in

this connection, was as crucial a factor as the lobbying conference she helped to organise, together with a number of U.S. NGOs, at the beginning of 1974.

Practical preparations and administration of the World Food Conference were in the hands of the UN Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO). For many years, FAO had had an extremely efficient nutrition section, staffed mainly by women. They were well aware of the vital role of women in food production, especially in Africa and ensured that this was adequately covered in the conference documents. At the time of the WFC itself, an NGO group organised a parallel meeting, also in Rome, which succeeded in influencing the official Conference. It is important to note that the members of this group had already been active beforehand, in their home countries, endeavouring to influence preparations at the national level.

As a consequence, the Conference recognised the part played by women in food production, processing and marketing, in family nutrition, in decisions on family size, etc., and the need to involve them fully in the process of rural development and extension services. Governments were urged to involve women fully in the decision-making machinery for food production and nutrition, and to provide women equal access with men to education and training in agricultural technology, marketing and distribution techniques. Ingrid Palmer states that "taken together, this set of resolutions is remarkable for its sensitivity to women's issues".

3. The other world conferences

The situation was completely different with Habitat: United Nations Conference on Human Settlements, held in Vancouver in 1976. Ingrid Palmer summarised her conclusions on this Conference by saying it "failed to state clearly how the environment had a special impact on women's domestic work and that improvements therein were a precondition for women's effective use of access to other economic and social opportunities. Its reference to the special problems of the young, the aged and the handicapped highlighted this omission, since women currently serve as the last refuge for these vulnerable groups".

The World Conference on Employment, Income distribution, Social Progress and the International Division of Labour, in 1976, launched the concept of Basic Needs into the international development discussions. It acknowledged that rural women, especially, were "rather overworked than underemployed" and that it is hypocritical to stress the importance of full participation of women in public affairs when they "have little or no free time and have a poor resource base from which to represent their claims on communal effort". The great contribution of this Conference was its analysis and appraisal of basic needs delivery systems which pays appropriate tribute to the role of women. As observed by Ingrid Palmer, the Employment Conference was also the first forum where women's special interests, and the conflict between social and economic investments, were raised by the international community.

The Conference on Economic Cooperation among Developing Countries in 1976, the Water Conference in 1977, the Conference on Desertification the same year and the Conference on Technical Cooperation among Developing Countries in 1978 failed totally to realise that there might be an important women's dimension in these topics, too, and that its recognition might enhance possibilities of solving some of the problems. It is

particularly difficult to understand this omission in respect of the Water Conference, since it is well-known that over the centuries women have been and are the basic water supply system in many countries; it is surely, therefore, obvious that the provision of a secure water delivery system will, first and foremost, be of interest to them.

Equally unbelievable is the fact that the Primary Health Care Conference, held in Alma Ata in 1978, managed to pass resolutions on public participation, food production, proper nutrition, water, sanitation, training and appropriate health technology without mentioning women. Did not the fact that the universal basic health care system has forever been mothers (whose knowledge and skills have been the basis of family nutrition and hygiene and who have taken care of children and the aged and nurtured the sick when no other services existed) deserve recognition? This Conference "was extraordinary in that it ignored the very substantial sex-differentiated interests in preventive health measures," concludes Ingrid Palmer.

Virtually all the conferences lauded the principle of public participation in decision-making but the World Conference on Agrarian Reform and Rural Development, in Rome in 1979, was the only one to realise that certain pre-conditions had to be met before women could participate effectively, says Ms. Palmer. By calling for women's personal rights in land reform, it clearly manifested its understanding of the necessity to examine facts governing exchange and distribution not only between the various social classes making up a community but also in individual households.

In this Conference, the influence of independent NGO groups was visible and far from negligible. The Food Policy Study Group of the International Peace Research Association had been established in connection with the World Food Conference five years earlier and had continued its work in the intervening period. It was also the initiator of the Rome Declaration Group at the 1979 Conference, distributing alternative information to the delegates and carrying out effective lobbying, in many different areas, before and during the Conference.

The UN Conference on Science and Technology for Development in Vienna in 1979 was somewhat unique in that considerable efforts had already been expended during the preparatory process by NGOs and female delegates to the Preparatory Committee to have the women's perspective appropriately incorporated in the texts of the draft documents. Almost all this work, however, was in vain, due to active opposition from many delegations both in the Preparatory Committee and in the Commissions of the Conference itself.

In an ultimate attempt, a couple of Nordic women delegates took the initiative, in mid-Conference, of launching a draft resolution on women, science and technology, drafted so as to oblige all implementing bodies, both national and international, to integrate women into all activities laid out in the Plan of Action of the Conference as adopted. Within a few days, the draft attracted quite a number of sponsors among the delegations and, in the concluding plenary, was presented as a joint resolution of the host country, the Nordic countries and a number of developing countries, and unanimously adopted. It calls for the integration and appropriate participation of women in all organs and decision-making bodies which decide on the selection and implementation of science and technology for development in both Third World and industrialised countries. (See Annex I.

Figure 4

THE UNITED NATIONS WORLD CONFERENCES 1970-1980

1. United Nations Conference on the Human Environment
   Stockholm 5-16 June 1972

2. United Nations World Population Conference
   Bucharest, 19-30 August 1974

3. World Food Conference
   Rome, 5-16 November 1974

4. World Conference of the International Women's Year
   Mexico, 19 June-2 July 1975

5. Habitat: United Nations Conference on Human Settlements
   Vancouver, 31 May-11 June 1976

6. Tripartite World Conference on Employment, Income Distribution, Social Progress and the International Division of Labour
   Geneva, June 1976

7. Conference on Economic Co-operation among Developing Countries
   Mexico, 13-22 September 1976

8. United Nations Water Conference
   Mar del Plata, 14-25 March 1977

9. United Nations Conference on Desertification
   Nairobi, 29 August-9 September 1977

10. World Conference to Combat Racism and Racial Discrimination
    Geneva, 14-25 August 1978

11. United Nations Conference on Technical Co-operation among Developing Countries
    Buenos Aires, 30 August-12 September 1978

12. Primary Health Care Conference
    Alma-Ata, September 1978

13. World Conference on Agrarian Reform and Rural Development
    Rome, 12-20 July 1979

14. United Nations Conference on Science and Technology for Development
    Vienna, 20-31 August 1979

15. World Conference of the United Nations Decade for Women
    Copenhagen, 14-30 July 1980

4. By mere chance

Ultimately, then, it seems to be a matter of mere chance if women's voice is heard in the 'male enclaves' of UN world conferences - even when the women's angle is well-justified and documented: for example, two very substantial background documents on the importance of water issues for women were prepared for the Water Conference by the UN Secretariat and the appropriate unit of FAO. However, the Conference ignored these aspects, presumably because there were no active women on the delegations to get them to the discussion table and also, perhaps, because there was little parallel NGO activity on this occasion.

The views of Dr. Davidson Nicol, already quoted earlier, strengthen these observations. Male dominated delegations do not seem to take up women's issues in UN conferences, even when they are extensively covered in the conference documentation. Do men fear being branded as eccentric and opportunistic if they support an issue which, traditionally, they have steered clear of?

When at least a few active women have been on the delegations or national preparatory organs for UN conferences, or working for NGOs concerned with the substantive issue, they have generally taken the initiative and - when sufficiently well-versed in UN procedures - have been able to get draft resolutions through all the various stages. A well-argued and well-prepared resolution may well receive support even from male delegates. (A good example is that of the fully-male delegation from Finland which successfully steered a resolution on women and industrialization through the Third General Conference of the UN Industrial Development Organization (UNIDO) in 1980.)

5. Women and industrialization

One might assume that industrialization is the last field in which anybody would think of taking up the female dimension. However, it is especially important to bring women's aspects and interests into focus at an early stage in the industrialization of developing countries in order to avoid making the same mistakes already made in industrialised countries.

Consideration of the women's angle at UNIDO in the 1970s demonstrates what can happen if there are one or two people to launch an initiative at the right time and in the right place. The Second General Conference in 1975 adopted the Lima Declaration and Plan of Action, designed to apply the principles of the new international economic order in the field of industrialization. In the documentation, reference was already made to the importance of recognising the impact of industrialization on the female section of the population. It also provided that equal access to training for industrial professions be ensured for all, without any discrimination, including on the basis of sex.

The Lima documents were drafted by the Group of 77, where active women delegates saw to it that women's angles were not overlooked. Later a draft resolution was prepared - with inspiration and support from the UN Secretariat - on women and industrialisation to further elaborate the relevant provisions of the Lima Plan of Action. This resolution was finally unanimously adopted at the ninth session of the Industrial Development Board a few months after the Lima Conference. (IDB Resolution 44 (IX), 25 April 1975)

It mandated UNIDO to organise a workshop on the role of women in industrialization in developing countries, in 1978. Thirty-two representatives of developing countries and nine from UN agencies and organs participated. Among papers presented was one from the UN Centre for Social Development and Humanitarian Affairs, which summarised the main points at issue as follows:

(a) Women's traditional industrial employment has been eliminated, but there has been little new employment creation for women;

(b) Women have been prominent in the low-paid, poor-prospects labour force of transnational corporations' off-shore, labour-intensive enterprises;

(c) More research is required cross-culturally on TNCs' hiring and wage policies and on technological choices on the role of women in industry.

The recommendations adopted at the workshop were very much to the point at that stage and very concrete. They covered: discrimination with respect to recruitment, training, wages and promotion; prejudices and attitudinal barriers to women's employment in industry; practices of transnational corporations; contracted out piece-work; basic education; promotion of women's cooperatives in small and medium-sized enterprises; future work by UNIDO in this area; and efforts to unionise women.

This workshop was only the first step in the implementation of the provisions of the IDB resolution - and did not come until three years later. It was therefore necessary to raise the issue again at the Third General Conference of UNIDO which took place in New Delhi in 1980. UNIDO III was drawing up principles and guidelines for industrial development until the year 2000 which made it all the more important to ensure that UNIDO itself and member countries took the interests of womankind into consideration in the process.

A group of women in Helsinki drafted a resolution on women and industrialization and presented it to the Finnish delegation to UNIDO III which brought it up at the preparatory meeting for the Conference where it gained the support of the other Nordic countries. At the Conference, the draft resolution was submitted as a joint initiative by the Nordics and 10 other countries from various regions and was the only resolution unanimously adopted at UNIDO III. (See ID/CONF.4/Res.1 and Annex II.)

The resolution gives instructions to the Organization and, i.a., invites it to keep under constant review the impact of the Lima Declaration and Plan of Action on women and to report regularly on the status of its implementation. It requests that participation of women be promoted on a par with that of men in planning and decision-making.

Time has shown that the resolution adopted at UNIDO III did not come a moment too soon, but that it did not go far enough. The unprecedented expansion of industries, and especially that of transnational corporations, in southern Asia has aggravated many existing problems and created new ones. In 1984, women already outnumber men in Asia's industrial labour force - although the conditions in which they work are well-nigh appalling. The report Women in Development: A Resource Guide for Organization and Action, published by ISIS (Women's International Information and Communication Service) in 1983, states:

> "... women are super-exploited by these enterprises whose main motivation for hiring women is the higher profits derived from paying women the lower salaries ... The industries well realise the goldmine they have struck with women who are usually the most willing to work, the easiest to fire and the least likely to unionise. With little or no protection for wages, benefits and work, women are the most abused section of the formal labour force."

In the process of rapid automation, the industries in south-east Asia, which for a time brought hundreds of women from villages into industrial labour (i.e. into the money economy) are now about to close down and return to their home countries, since cheap labour is not that profitable any more. What then will be the fate of the displaced, out-of-work women? Prostitution? Few among them will return to their native villages.

However, there are also positive developments: in the first half of 1984 UNIDO, together with the Regional Commissions for Africa, the Caribbean and Asia, organised three workshops on women's role in planning and development of industrialization. These meetings brought industrial planners from governments and industry together with representatives of women's organizations to examine the current status of women in relation to industrial strategies, plans and policies.

No resolution adopted in the UN System, however, can take effect unless member governments implement it nationally and monitor implementation by intergovernmental organizations. It is, finally, the responsibility of the ordinary people and the non-governmental organizations in each country to put pressure on governments to see this is done. Alertness, awareness and action on the part of the citizens of each country thus are prerequisites (and the only guarantee) that UN resolutions will become reality. But in how many countries is such free political activity permitted or tolerated, let alone encouraged?

6. The 1984 International Conference on Population

More recently, the International Conference on Population, held in Mexico City in August 1984, noted in its final report "the slow progress made since 1974 in the achievement of equality for women". Its recommendations concerning the role and status of women (see Annex III) "take into account the need for actions to ensure that women can effectively exercise rights equal to those of men in all spheres of economic, social cultural and political life, and in particular those rights which pertain most directly to population concerns".

E. THE UNITED NATIONS DEVELOPMENT DECADES

In concluding, it seems appropriate to review the treatment meted out to women's issues within the framework of the UN Development Decades. To what extent have the International Development Strategies taken the female population, its needs and aspirations, into consideration? And how have national development policies benefitted women?

1. The development strategies

The goals and objectives of the first UN Development Decade - the 1960s - were so generalised that it would have been unrealistic to expect any special treatment for women. Neither did those who drafted the International Development Strategy for the Second Development Decade, at the end of the 1960s, realise the importance of women and their role in the development of their countries for, although the Strategy does set somewhat more detailed objectives, coupled with social and cultural goals, it does not mention the contribution of women. The final point in the list of objectives, however, reads: "The full integration of women in the total development effort should be encouraged."

At the beginning of the 1970s, with this single sentence as the point of departure, the UN Commission on the Status of Women drew up a more ambitious programme, based on what "the integration of women in development" should imply in practice. And - despite the shortcomings of the IDS, it was during the Second Development Decade that all the progress on women's issues already described above took place.

The International Development Strategy for the UN's Third Development Decade - the 1980s - is principally based on the goals of the various Plans of Action adopted by the world conferences of the 1970s and the long-term objectives of the programmes adopted for future decades by most of the Specialized Agencies and organs of the UN System. Since women's issues had been recognised in many of these programmes during the Women's Decade, there are plenty of points concerning women in the Strategy. Already the Preamble expresses the hope that "a substantial improvement in the status of women will take place during the Decade," and the chapter on Goals and Objectives contains the following paragraph:

> "Full and effective participation by the entire population at all stages of the development process should be ensured. In line with the Programme of Action adopted by the World Conference of the United Nations Decade for Women, women should play an active role in that process. Appropriate measures should be taken for profound social and economic changes and for the elimination of the structural imbalances which compound and perpetuate women's disadvantages. To this end, all countries will pursue the objective of securing women's equal participation both as agents and as beneficiaries in all sectors and at all levels of the development process. This should include women's greater access to nutrition, health services, education and training, employment, and financial resources and their greater participation in the analysis, planning, decision-making, implementation and evaluation of development. Changes that will lead to the sharing of responsibilities by men and women in the family and in the management of the household should be encouraged. Institutional and administrative mechanisms to accomplish these objectives should be strengthened. All

countries should give high priority to the objectives of mobilizing and integrating youth in development."

Much still remains unaddressed by the Development Strategy. For example, the chapter on Food and Agriculture lays far less emphasis on the importance and contribution of women than do the final documents from the World Food Conference and the World Conference on Agrarian Reform and Rural Development (which form the basis for this part of the Strategy), thus emphasizing the traditionally haphazard recognition accorded women. The Mexico and Copenhagen Plans of Action are referred to only briefly, in a small paragraph at the end of the chapter on Social Development. Unlike the other Plans of Action, their substance is not incorporated in the Strategy; it is merely mentioned that "the important set of measures to improve the status of women (contained in the above-mentioned Plans of Action) should be implemented". Is everyone who reads the IDS expected to know these measures by heart? Did they not merit the addition of a chapter on Women in Development?

This treatment reflects the same "intellectual inability to cope with women's issues" noted by Ingrid Palmer in her report. As she concludes:

> "... Until the constraints on women's more effective contribution to and direct benefits from the economy and society percolate through all sectoral analyses, there is a danger that planners will continue to view women's issues as a welfare item and therefore as consumption competing for funds with investment in productive capacity".

2. The time of review

The development policies implemented in the past decades, firstly in the industrialized countries and more recently in many so-called developing countries have proved to be very problematic for women. Already the move away from subsistence economy to monetary economy may have the effect of reducing their relative status and power. In traditional cultures, women often have significant status due to their vital contribution to daily life - which is essential for the well-being of their families. And giving birth to children is another factor which traditionally has always conferred status. This change, and its consequences, are described in the report of the International Workshop held in Bangkok in 1979 (7):

> "The women's movement in the West passed through a period of intense, dramatic social and economic change that removed production from the home, contributed to devaluation of women's household production and household maintenance, their exclusion from social and economic power and resources, and the notion that men work and women have babies. Currently, women in the Third World are going through much the same trauma for many of the same reasons, though the direct economic and political forces are different. If women from capitalist and socialist countries, elite and poor, North and South, are to bridge the political and economic gulfs between them, the recognition of this fundamental commonality of economic processes is crucial."

A UNITAR report, Women and Technology in the Industrialized Countries (8), published in 1979, analyses the problems created for women through technological development in the industrialized countries. The transfer of

technology to developing countries in recent years has often completely failed. One common problem has been that most of the technological improvements come to the hands and work of men, thus exacerbating the inequalities between men and women. Women remain in the traditional sector and work with old, inefficient tools and are then accused of being old-fashioned and unproductive.

The most thoroughly comprehensive evaluation of development from the point of view of women so far is the report published by ISIS (see page 26) which covers, inter alia, agriculture and rural development, health, education and communication and also the consequences of the activities of transnational corporations.

Modernisation of production and increase of the foreign exchange earnings or export-oriented production have been the main aims of development policies in many countries. Thus, a growing proportion of agricultural land has been taken over for the production of export crops (coffee, tea, sisal, cotton, tobacco, cocoa, groundnuts, etc.) instead of, as in the past, growing food for the local population. Women have lost their land, adequate diet and basic health care have remained dreams and the earlier, more or less self-sufficient, communities have become dependent on government handouts and foreign aid.

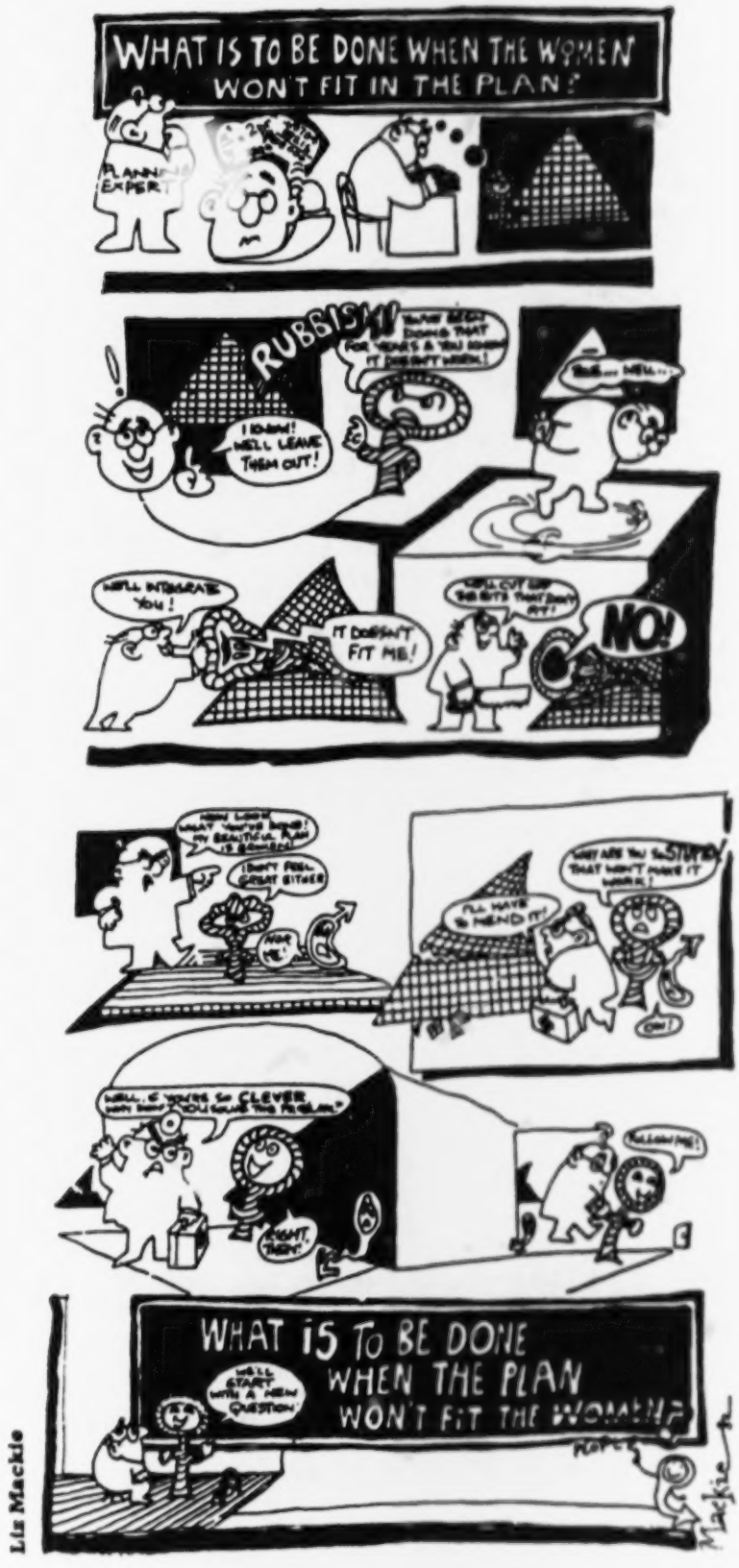
In addition, many income-generating programmes created especially for women have proved unsatisfactory. Although women have been trained to develop their age-old skills in handicrafts and home production and the marketing of their products has been improved, this has trapped them in the traditional sector. They continue to lack the training necessary to compete in the modern, industrial sector, where men still walk off with the jobs - particularly the better-paid ones.

Most problematic of all for women are the transnational corporations, which have actively advocated the transfer of women's work from the self-sufficient category to market-oriented production and industry, since women, of course, are the cheapest and easiest-to-handle labour force. Certain governments have quite openly used their women as 'decoys' in their short-sighted eagerness to lure TNCs to invest in their countries. Such practices have precipitated a situation in some of the free economic zones of Asia which is reminiscent of the worst abuses of labour in industrial history.

The ISIS report criticises international development policies for their reluctance to see the links between the development in the North and that in the South. The former has chosen to see development as a far-distant affair and, therefore, as the report says bluntly, "all the development strategies in the past, as well as the ones proposed for the future, lack validity". "Equality cannot be achieved," it continues, "as long as women are seen as marginal to the existence of men, society and development" in both developed and developing countries.

Such examples lead one to question the meaning and appropriateness of contemporary development from the point of view of all human-beings - both men and women. What justification can there possibly be for exporting this kind of development from industrialized to developing countries? Surely alternative paths must be sought.

Figure 7


WHAT IS TO BE DONE WHEN THE WOMEN WON'T FIT IN THE PLAN?
PLANNING EXPERT
RUBBISH!
I KNOW! WE'LL LEAVE THEM OUT!
WE'LL INTEGRATE YOU!
IT DOESN'T FIT ME!
NO!
MY BEAUTIFUL PLAN IS RUINED!
I DON'T FEEL GREAT EITHER
WHAT ARE YOU STUPID THAT WON'T MAKE IT WORSE!
I'LL HAVE TO MEND IT!
OW!
WELL, I'VE SO CLEVER
RIGHT, THERE!
WHAT IS TO BE DONE WHEN THE PLAN WON'T FIT THE WOMEN?
WE'LL START WITH A NEW QUESTION
Liz Mackie
Mackie

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Source: ISIS Women in Development

The NGO Conference on Women and the New International Economic Order, held in The Netherlands in 1982, went one step further and stated: "Now we need another development both in the North and the South. Therefore, we need to recognise the views and interests of women and to create opportunities for their full participation at all levels of the society. Then the development would not any more take place only on economic terms but also on human terms".

3. Towards the year 2000

The UN System, together with its Member States, is currently preparing for the 1985 World Conference to Review and Appraise the Achievements of the UN Decade for Women: Equality, Development and Peace. Its purpose is:

* the critical review and appraisal of progress achieved and obstacles encountered in attaining the goals and objectives of the UN Decade for Women;

* the adoption of forward-looking strategies of implementation for the advancement of women for the period up to the year 2000.

A World Survey on the Role of Women in Development is being prepared by the United Nations for the Conference (9). It will be somewhat unique as a UN document on women, since it will consider women in terms of economic development (rather than relegating them to a sub-section on 'social issues' - in the basket along with health, education, the family and population - as was still the case at the Copenhagen Conference five years ago). The outlines for the Survey were set already in GA Resolution 36/74 of December 1981, which suggested that it "should analyse the role of women in relation to key developmental issues as envisaged in the International Development Strategy ... focusing in particular on trade, agriculture, industry, energy, money and finance, and science and technology".

Those UN Agencies which have adopted the more pertinent resolutions on women (e.g. FAO, UNIDO and the UN Centre on Science and Technology) have undertaken to prepare the relevant chapters of the Survey - an indication that past efforts to make UN Agencies and Centres aware of the importance of women in their respective fields of competence have not always been in vain.

The World Survey, together with national reports from Member States, will form the basis on which the conference document containing the forward-looking strategies for development up to the year 2000 will be drafted and will be the most telling input to the preparation and work of the Conference. All interested groups outside the inter-governmental arena are invited to express their views and to bring them to the attention of the various preparatory bodies, both in the UN System and in Member States. Now is the time for NGOs to coordinate their efforts and make their voices heard in this process.

The approach adopted by the UN System in preparation for the Conference in 1985 is a promising indication that women's issues are finally about to receive all the attention they deserve. It is to be hoped that this trend will grow and become a permanent feature in the years to come.

The expanding view of women's issues in the UN reflects the process which has taken place outside, and irrespective of, the inter-governmental organization over the last decade. The Women's Movement has emerged into a new era and become truly international. It now receives sustenance and enhancement from well-founded women's research - a new field of science, spreading to more and more faculties. Women have also created their own movement for peace, which has already proved to be one of the most innovative components of the new Peace Movement. The seeds of a new approach to international cooperation have been sown and are growing.

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4. SEX DISPARITIES IN THE DISTRIBUTION OF FOOD WITHIN RURAL HOUSEHOLDS, Alice Stewart Carloni in "Food and Nutrition", Vol.7, No.1. FAO, Rome, 1981.

5. WOMEN IN LAND AND WATER DEVELOPMENT, in "Land and Water", No.13, June 1982. FAO, Rome.

6. ROLE OF WOMEN IN AGRICULTURE, WITH EMPHASIS ON FOOD PRODUCTION. Country fact sheets available from Home Economics and Social Programmes Service, FAO, Rome.

7. IDEAS AND ACTION BULLETIN : SPECIAL ISSUE ON RURAL WOMEN, no. 158, 1984 4/5. FFHC/AD, FAO, Rome.

8. THE LEGAL STATUS OF RURAL WOMEN. FAO, Home Economics and Social Programmes Service, Rome. A review of those aspects of legal status which limit the economic participation of women in rural development. Lisa Bennett.

9. AGRICULTURAL MODERNISATION AND THIRD WORLD WOMEN : Pointers from the Literature and an Empirical Analysis. B. Argarwal. ILO, Geneva 1981.

10. THE IMPACT OF THE GREEN REVOLUTION ON WOMEN'S WORK PARTICIPATION AND SEX ROLES, G. Kelkar. ILO, Geneva, 1981.

11. THE PLIGHT OF RURAL WOMEN : ALTERNATIVES FOR ACTION. Z. Ahmad in International Labour Review, Vol.119, No.4. ILO, Geneva, 1980.

12. RURAL WOMEN : UNEQUAL PARTNERS IN DEVELOPMENT, Martha Loutfi. ILO, Geneva, 1980.

13. WOMEN IN THE VILLAGES, MEN IN THE TOWNS. UNESCO, Paris, 1984. Results of a comparative research project to analyse the effects of male urban migration on women family members remaining in the countryside in Bangladesh, India, Republic of Korea, the Philippines and Thailand; carried out by women social scientists of those countries.

POPULATION AND DEVELOPMENT

1. THE STATUS OF WOMEN, DEVELOPMENT AND POPULATION TRENDS. UNESCO, Paris. Bowker Publishing Company and UNIPUB, 1983. A bibliographic guide to recent research and world literature on the status of women, which also covers untranslated works written in local languages, theses, unpublished documents and up-to-date information on institutions undertaking research and major events related to the field of women's studies.

2. WOMEN AND POPULATION. An overview of UNFPA-supported projects with particular reference to women. UNFPA, New York, 1980.

3. POPULATION ACTIVITIES : THE ROLE OF WOMEN LEADERS. Population Profiles no.21, UNFPA, New York, April 1984.

SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY

1. TECHNOLOGY AS A THREAT TO THE DEVELOPMENT OF WOMEN'S SKILLS. Ceres, Vol.14, No.6, Nov/Dec. 1981. FAO Rome.

2. TECHNOLOGY AND THE STATUS OF WOMEN. UNCTAD, Geneva, 1984, TD/B/C.6/125. (Also other publications dealing with women and trade, women in the least developed countries, and women and commodities, in preparation by the UNCTAD Secretariat in Geneva).

3. WOMEN AND TECHNICAL CO-OPERATION AMONG DEVELOPING COUNTRIES. UNDP, New York, 1984. Update of 1980 Development Issue Paper No.13. Compiled from essays by women from developing countries in all regions, it addresses the effect on women of traditional technical assistance programmes, and how to overcome the obstacles and restraints which inhibit women's development co-operation.

4. ACCESS OF WOMEN TO SCIENCE EDUCATION AND TRAINING AND ASSOCIATED CAREERS, UNESCO, Paris, 1983.
   Four studies: Czechoslovakia, France, Malaysia and Venezuela.

WATER AND SANITATION

1. WOMEN AS INNOVATORS IN DRINKING WATER AND SANITATION PROJECTS. UNDP, New York, 1982, E. Highlights the importance of involving women in every aspect of water and sanitation programmes and describes ways in which this might be effectively accomplished. Bibliography.

2. NON-GOVERNMENTAL ORGANIZATIONS AS A SIGNIFICANT DECADE RESOURCE. UNDP, New York, 1982, E. Provides information on NGO action in the International Drinking Water Supply and Sanitation Decade (IDWSSD).

3. BUILDING BRIDGES : COLLABORATION WITH NGOs IN SOUTH ASIA. UNDP, New York, 1984, E. Summary report and three country case-histories (Bangladesh, India, Nepal) on work in drinking water and sanitation programmes.

4. INDIA: WOMEN MAKE THE DIFFERENCE IN SANITATION EFFORT UNDP article in Asia-Pacific - Scheduled for 1985, E. Feature article describing how, despite available technology, people did not ask for a safer latrine until the involvement of women began to reverse the trend.

5. DECADE WATCH/Quarterly Publication. UNDP, New York, E,F,S. Provides non-technical information on progress and innovation in drinking water supply and sanitation, including updates on women's participation.

WOMEN AND HEALTH

1. WOMEN AND DISABILITY (E,F,S,A)
   WOMEN, HEALTH AND DEVELOPMENT (E,S)
   The first two in the series of development education kits produced by the JUNIC/NGO Sub-Group on Women and Development (JUNIC Working Group on Development Education), Geneva 1981 and 1982. Now available from UN/CSDHA in Vienna.

2. POSITIVE APPROACHES TO PROMOTING WOMEN'S HEALTH.
   European WHO/Regional Office with UK based Women's Health Information Centre (WHIC), Copenhagen, 1984.

3. MANDATE FOR CHANGE : WOMEN, HEALTH AND DEVELOPMENT IN THE AMERICAS. PAHO/WHO, Washington D.C., U.S.A., 1982.

4. HEALTH FOR SOME OR HEALTH FOR ALL?
   UNICEF News No.108, 1981/2. UNICEF, New York

5. MEDICAL AND SOCIAL CARE FOR THE WOMAN-MOTHER AND THE GROWING GENERATION IN BULGARIA. UNIDO, Vienna, 1981.
   UNIDO ID/WG. 351/6.

6. WOMEN, HEALTH AND DEVELOPMENT.
   Background document for provisional agenda item 12.2 of Thirty-fourth Session of the European Regional Committee, 1984, and

   Position paper, Doyall, Kickbusch and Morgall, Health Education Unit technical paper prepared for WHO Regional Office for Europe, March 1984. World Health Organization, Copenhagen and Geneva.

7. WOMEN AND HEALTH
   Regional Director's Annual Report, 1983 (Special feature), WHO.

   Report on a WHO Meeting in Edinburgh, 1983. (See also background papers), and

   Beyond the Yellow Wallpaper, on taking women seriously, keynote speech presented at the Conference on Women and Health in Edinburgh, May, 1983. WHO.

8. WOMEN AND HEALTH IN EUROPE. Janine Morgall. World Health Magazine, WHO, April, 1984.

9. POSITIVE APPROACHES TO PROMOTING WOMEN'S HEALTH.
   Ruzek and Hill, Health Education Unit Technical Paper, July 1984. WHO Regional Office for Europe, Copenhagen

10. WOMEN AND HEALTH IS MORE THAN WOMEN'S HEALTH.
Janine Morgall. Health Education Unit
WHO Regional Office for Europe, Copenhagen

11. INFORMATION ON INDIVIDUALS AND GROUPS IN THE FIELD OF WOMEN AND HEALTH. Prepared by the Health Education Unit, World Health Organization, May, 1983.

12. REPORT OF WOMEN, HEALTH AND DEVELOPMENT ACTIVITIES IN WHO'S PROGRAMMES 1982-1983.
WHO, Geneva, 1984. FHE/84.1

13. GLOBAL STRATEGY FOR HEALTH FOR ALL BY THE YEAR 2000
WHO, Geneva, 1981.

14. MATERNITY BENEFITS IN THE 80'S. WHO/ILO, 1983.
Summarizes existing provisions of such legislation on a regional basis, and emphasizes the need for extending the coverage of such legislation. (i.e. increased time and facilities for breast-feeding).

15. TRADITIONAL PRACTICES AFFECTING THE HEALTH OF WOMEN AND CHILDREN. Background papers to WHO Seminar, Khartoum, 1979. WHO/EMRO Technical Publication. No.2, Vol.2, 1982.

16. RISK APPROACH FOR MATERNAL AND CHILD HEALTH. A selected annotated bibliography.
Document MCH/RA/81.1. WHO, Geneva.

17. SELF-HELP AND HEALTH IN EUROPE. Stephen Hatch and Ilona Kickbusch, ed. WHO Regional Office for Europe, Copenhagen, 1983.
A collection of articles on self-help health care in Europe.

18. NINTH ANNUAL REPORT OF THE SPECIAL PROGRAMME OF RESEARCH DEVELOPMENT AND RESEARCH TRAINING IN HUMAN REPRODUCTION, 1980. WHO, Geneva, 1981.

19. THE PREVALENCE OF NUTRITIONAL ANAEMIA IN WOMEN IN DEVELOPING COUNTRIES. E. Royston. World Health Statistics Quarterly, 35 (2), 1982 and FHE/79.3.

20. SEX DIFFERENTIALS IN MORTALITY : TRENDS, DETERMINANTS AND CONSEQUENCES. WHO, Geneva, 1983.

21. FAMILY HEALTH: SELECTED LIST OF PUBLICATIONS.
WHO, Geneva, 1981, FHE/80.2. Rev.1.

22. HEALTH AND THE STATUS OF WOMEN. WHO, Geneva, 1980. FHE/80.1.

23. WOMEN, HEALTH AND DEVELOPMENT. World Health, June 1980.

24. TOWARDS A BETTER FUTURE: MATERNAL AND CHILD HEALTH.
WHO, Geneva, 1980 E,F.

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25. FEMALE STERILIZATION: GUIDELINES FOR THE DEVELOPMENT OF SERVICES, 2nd edition. WHO, Geneva, 1980. E,F.

26. GUIDELINES FOR NUTRITION TRAINING OF PRIMARY HEALTH CARE WORKERS AND OTHER COMMUNITY WORKERS. WHO, Geneva, 1981/2.

27. GUIDELINES ON HEALTH EDUCATION FOR THE PRIMARY HEALTH CARE WORKERS. WHO, Geneva, 1981/2.

28. REPORT OF AN INFORMAL CONSULTATION WITH NON-GOVERNMENTAL ORGANISATIONS CONTRIBUTING TO THE HEALTH OF WOMEN AND CHILDREN IN THE CONTEXT OF PRIMARY HEALTH CARE. WHO, Geneva, 3-4 May 1983. MCH/84.3

Breast-Feeding

29. BREASTFEEDING AND HEALTH. Assignment Children, no.55/56, 1981. E,F. UNICEF, Geneva.

30. MATERNAL DIET, BREAST-FEEDING CAPACITY, AND LACTATIONAL INFERTILITY. Edited by R.G. Whitehead. The United Nations University, Japan, 1984.
This publication recommends research in such areas as discrepancies between recommended dietary allowances and lactation and actual consumption levels.

31. WOMEN AND THE WEANING PROCESS. International Centre for Research on Women (ICRW) for WHO, 1982.
It analyses the broad context of weaning from the women's perspectives. It summarizes much of the current literature on the effects of women's work and mothering roles.

32. FOODS FOR INFANTS AND YOUNG CHILDREN : A SURVEY OF RELEVANT NATIONAL LEGISLATION. J. de Moerloose. WHO Document HLE/FHE/81.1. WHO, Geneva.

33. INFANT AND YOUNG CHILDREN FEEDING : CURRENT ISSUES. WHO/UNICEF, Geneva, 1981.

34. WOMEN AND BREAST-FEEDING. WHO, Geneva, 1982. Available from Division of Family Health.

35. BREAST-FEEDING. WHO, Geneva, 1981.

36. CONTEMPORARY PATTERNS OF BREAST-FEEDING. Report on the WHO Collaborative Study on Breast-Feeding. WHO, Geneva, 1981.

37. INTERNATIONAL CODE OF MARKETING OF BREAST-MILK SUBSTITUTES. WHO, Geneva, 1981.

38. BREAST-FEEDING PATTERNS ; A REVIEW OF STUDIES IN THE EASTERN MEDITERRANEAN REGION. WHO/EMRO Technical Publication, No.4, 1982.

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WOMEN AND THE MEDIA

1. WOMEN AND THE MEDIA. Report of an Expert Group Meeting, Vienna, Austria, 24-27 November 1981. UN/CSDHA Vienna. AWB/EGM/1981/1. E,F,S.

2. WOMEN AND THE CULTURAL INDUSTRIES. Margaret Gallagher. UNESCO, Paris 1982.

3. MODELE D'ENQUETE SUR L'ACCES ET LA PARTICIPATION DES FEMMES DE LA VIE CULTURELLE, Ninou Garabaghi Rapport CSR-C-33. UNESCO, Paris, 1982.

4. PAST AND PRESENT OF WOMEN IN MEXICO WOMEN - ELEMENTS FOR A DEBATE in "Cultures", vol.VIII, no.4. UNESCO, Paris, 1982. E,F.

5. UNEQUAL OPPORTUNITIES: the case of women and the media. Margaret Gallagher. Unesco, Paris, 1981. A study of the portrayal and participation of women in the media, attempting to relate the findings of research to the needs and possibilities for action.

6. INTERPRESS (IPS) WOMEN'S FEATURE SERVICES (UNESCO sponsored):

   AFRICAN WOMEN'S FEATURES SERVICE
   P.O. Box 74536, Nairobi, Kenya.

   CARIBBEAN WOMEN'S FEATURES SYNDICATE
   P.O. Box 159, Bridgetown, Barbados.

   DEPTH NEWS WOMEN'S FEATURES SERVICES
   P.O. Box 1843, Manila, Philippines.

   OFFICINA INFORMATIVA DE LA MUJER
   c/o Interpress Service,
   Via Panisperna 207, Rome (for Latin America)

EDUCATION

1. PORTRAYAL OF WOMEN AND MEN IN SCHOOL TEXTBOOKS AND CHILDREN'S LITERATURE: China, France, Norway, Peru, Ukraine. Unesco, Paris, 1983.

2. EQUALITY OF EDUCATIONAL OPPORTUNITY FOR GIRLS AND WOMEN. Unesco, Paris, 1983.

WOMEN AND PEACE

1. DECLARATION ON THE PARTICIPATION OF WOMEN IN PROMOTING INTERNATIONAL PEACE AND COOPERATION. DPI/827. United Nations, New York, September 1984. E,F,S.

2. THE ROLE OF WOMEN, AS MOTHERS AND MEMBERS OF SOCIETY, IN EDUCATION FOR PEACE, MUTUAL UNDERSTANDING AND RESPECT FOR HUMAN RIGHTS, Birgit Brock-Utne. Doc. ED-81/CONF. 609/2, 22 Sept. 1981. UNESCO, Paris.

WOMEN AND FOOD

1. FOOD AID AND THE ROLE OF WOMEN IN DEVELOPMENT. A 40-page booklet describing the role of women in development and showing how food aid can be used to improve their lives. World Food Programme, Rome.

2. WOMEN IN FOOD PRODUCTION, FOOD HANDLING AND NUTRITION, WITH SPECIAL EMPHASIS ON AFRICA. Produced by the Protein Advisory Group of the United Nations in 1977, this thorough examination of the literature and research perspectives concerning women, food and nutrition is now available from ISIS, P.O. Box 50, Geneva.

OTHER MATERIALS

A number of United Nations offices produce audio-visual and other materials relating to women and development. They include:

UN NGLS/New York :

WOMEN IN FILM : A CATALOGUE OF FILMS ON WOMEN IN DEVELOPMENT COUNTRIES. A resource listing of films and slide shows available in North America.
To be published in early 1985.

UN High Commissioner for Refugees, Palais des Nations, CH-1211 Geneva 10

Film and audio-visual kit on "Refugee Women"; Posters and calendar 1985 on theme of refugee women. Special dossier on refugee women planned for 1985.

UN Relief and Works Agency for Palestine Refugees in the Near East (UNRWA), Vienna International Centre, P.O. Box 700 A-1400 Vienna

Film on vocational training for young refugee women; full colour poster, etc.

United Nations Volunteers, Palais des Nations, CH-1211 Geneva 10

UNV Newsletter contains many articles about and by women UN Volunteers working in technical and other development-oriented fields in developing countries around the world, many of them from such countries. Publications on UNV work in specific countries also include information on women's activities.

Also film, PARTNERS FOR CHANGE, produced by Paul Klee, UN Radio and Visual Services Division for UNV, depicting activities of a number of women volunteers on assignment in Bhutan, the Comoros Islands, and the Yemen Arab Republic.

World Food Programme, Via delle Terme di Caracalla, 00100, Rome.

Films : WHAT RIGHTS HAS A WOMEN.
Subtitled, 'The Role of Women in Rural Development', the film examines the problems of rural women in Africa, Asia and Latin America. E,S.
Length : 40 minutes.

DOMINGA. A dynamic peasant woman in the Andes, she becomes president of the communities women's club through which the women become a force for innovation and improvement in their mountain community. They learn and teach better nutrition, family planning and how to read and write.
E,F,S.

Film Strips: WFP IN INDIA : A FLOOD OF CHANGES. Tells the story of a young Indian village woman whose life is being changed by her participation in the new village milk cooperative, a result of 'Operation Flood', a Government dairy project assisted by WFP. E,F,S.

WFP IN PERU : WOMEN OF THE SIERRA. WFP sees women not as passive receivers of food aid but as active participants in the design and execution of projects. This film strip deals with the example of rural women in depressed mountain villages of Peru, but the basic problems of poor rural women are very similar all the world over. E,S.

IN PREPARATION

1. QUESTIONS AND ANSWERS ON DEVELOPMENT ASSISTANCE.
   Booklet highlighting achievements of UN system development activities during 40 years.
   DPI/DESI, United Nations, New York.

2. UN DECADE FOR WOMEN : AN INFORMATION KIT. A compilation of documents explaining the Decade and information on the forthcoming World Conference in July, 1985. Includes some resources on women and development issues and information on the NGO forum.
   To be published by the UN NGLS/New York, E,F.

3. Report from US Consultation on Female Sexual Slavery and Economic Exploitation, October, 1984. Published by the UN NGLS/New York.
   Includes selected readings on sex tourism and female workers and a list of groups working on the issue and bibliography and UN documentation.
   Available in January 1985.

4. DISCRIMINATION AGAINST WORKING WOMEN.
   An ILO global study evaluating progress achieved and problems encountered in promoting equality of opportunity and treatment for women workers. In preparation for ILO Conference 1985.

5. WOMEN'S PARTICIPATION IN THE ECONOMIC ACTIVITY OF THE WORLD (1985). Statistical tabulation covering female share of the economically active population globally, regionally, and by country. In preparation for ILO Conference 1985.

6. ILO document relating to its input into the World Survey on the Role of Women in Development. Economic activity of women in agriculture, industry, trade, energy, money and finance, science and technology.

7. Statistics and indicators on the situation of women. Concepts and measurement of the economic activity of women by region (1975 - 1985). ILO, Geneva.

8. Review and appraisal of the achievements of the Decade. Analysis of replies to the questionnaire on employment sent to various ministries by the UN CSDHA in Vienna. ILO, Geneva.

9. Forward-looking strategies for the advancement of women. Synthesis of recent national trends including estimation and projections for policies until the year 2000. ILO, Geneva.

10 Inter-Organisational evaluation of technical co-operation projects. (An evaluation of technical co-operation projects in Rwanda, Indonesia, Haiti and Democratic Yemen). ILO, Geneva.

11. Inter-organizational evaluation study of women in development (Working title). Scheduled for early 1985. UNDP, New York. E,F,S.
An evaluation of the means, modalities and effects of efforts to promote a more active and deliberate involvement of women in development within Government projects and programmes supported by the agencies of the UN development system. Contains recommendations for improved strategies to promote women's participation in development activities.

12. UNFPA. Report of Regional Forum for African Women : Participation of Women and Women's Organizations in Population Programmes, 16-18 May 1984.

13. UNFPA. Report of International Forum for Women : Participation of Women and Women's Organization in Population Programmes, 6-8 June 1984.

14. UNFPA. Programme Activities in the Field of Women, Population and Development. 1969-1983.

15. STUDY ON THE ROLE OF WOMEN AS THE MAIN PROVIDERS OF HEALTH CARE IN THE FAMILY. Ms. Lesley Doyal, a UK sociologist, has been commissioned to carry out this study for WHO's Health Education Unit.

ACRONYMS AND ADDRESSES

CSDHA - Centre for Social Development and Humanitarian Affairs

Vienna International Centre
P.O. Box 500
A - 1400 Vienna
Austria

DESI - Division for Economic and Social Information

United Nations
New York, N.Y. 10017
U.S.A.

Palais des Nations
CH - 1211 Geneva 10
Switzerland

DPI - Department of Public Information

United Nations
New York, N.Y. 10017
U.S.A.

EMRO - WHO Regional Office for the Eastern Mediterranean

P.O. Box 1517
Alexandria
Egypt

EURO - WHO Regional Office for Europe

8 Scherfigsvej
2100 Copenhagen
Denmark

FAO - Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations

Via delle Terme di Caracalla
00100 Rome
Italy

FFHC/AD - Freedom from Hunger Campaign / Action for Development

(same address as FAO)

ILO - International Labour Office

4 chemin des Morillons
CH - 1211 Geneva 22
Switzerland

INSTRAW - International Research and Training Institute for The Advancement of Women

apartado postal 21747
Santo Domingo D.N.
Rep. Dominica

JUNIC - Joint United Nations Information Committee

UN NGLS - UN Non-Governmental Liaison Service(s)

NGLS/Geneva
Palais des Nations
CH-1211 Geneva 10
Switzerland

NGLS/New York
United Nations
Room CH - 5400
New York, N.Y. 10017
U.S.A.

PAHO - Pan American Health Organization

525 Twenty-third Street N.W.
Washington D.C. 20037
U.S.A.

UNCSTD - UN Conference on Science and Technology for Development

UNCTAD - United Nations Conference on Trade and Development

Palais des Nations
CH - 1211 Geneva 10
Switzerland

UNDP - United Nations Development Programme

1 United Nations Plaza
New York, N.Y. 10017
U.S.A.

Palais des Nations
CH - 1211 Geneva 10
Switzerland

UNESCO - United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation

7 place de Fontenoy
F - 75700 Paris
France

UNFPA - United Nations Fund for Population Activities

220 E. 42nd Street
New York, N.Y.10017
U.S.A.

Palais des Nations
CH - 1211 Geneva 10
Switzerland

UNHCR - United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees

Palais des Nations
CH - 1211 Geneva 10
Switzerland

UNICEF - United Nations Children's Fund

United Nations
New York, N.Y.10017
U.S.A.

Palais des Nations
CH - 1211 Geneva 10
Switzerland

UNIDO - United Nations Industrial Development Organization

Vienna International Centre
P.O. Box 300
A - 1400 Vienna
Austria

UNITAR - United Nations Institute for Training and Research

801 United Nations Plaza
New York, N.Y. 10017
U.S.A.

Palais des Nations
CH - 1211 Geneva 10
Switzerland

UNRWA - United Nations Relief and Works Agency for Palestine Refugees in the Near East

Vienna International Centre
P.O. Box 700
A - 1400 Vienna
Austria

UNU - United Nations University

Toho Seimei Building
15 - 1 Shibuya, 2 - chome
Shibuya - ku
Tokyo 150
Japan

UNV - United Nations Volunteers

Palais des Nations
CH - 1211 Geneva 10
Switzerland

WFP - World Food Programme
Via delle Terme di Caracalla
00100 Rome
Italy

WHO - World Health Organization

Avenue Appia
CH - 1211 Geneva 27
Switzerland

UNITED NATIONS

A

United Nations Conference on Science and Technology for Development

Vienna, Austria, August 1979

Distr.
LIMITED

A/CONF.81/L.4
30 August 1979

Original: ENGLISH

Austria, Denmark, Ethiopia, Finland, Jamaica, Norway, Papua New Guinea, Somalia, Sweden, Thailand, United Republic of Tanzania and Viet Nam: draft resolution

Women, science and technology

The United Nations Conference on Science and Technology for Development,

Mindful that the International Women's Decade was proclaimed in order to draw attention to the problems faced by women in their daily lives and to stimulate recognition at the national and international levels of the loss experienced where women, accounting for half of the world's adult population, are not given equal opportunity to contribute fully to national development,

Recalling General Assembly resolutions 3342 (XXIX) of 17 December 1974 and 3524 (XXX) of 15 December 1975 on the integration of women in development, in which the Assembly urged Governments to give sustained attention to the integration of women in the planning, formulation, design and implementation of development projects and programmes,

Recalling the relevant proposals of the World Plan of Action for the Implementation of the Objectives of the International Women's Year adopted at the Conference of the International Women's Year held at Mexico City, 1/ the World Population Plan of Action 2/ and the World Food Conference, 3/ as well as the World Conference on Agrarian Reform and Rural Development on the integration of women in development,

Noting the importance accorded to the integration of women in development by the Governing Council of the United Nations Development Programme at its nineteenth session and at the ninth session of the Industrial Development Board of the United Nations Industrial Development Organization,

Mindful that the Economic Commission for Africa Training and Research Centre for Women, the Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific, the United Nations Conference on Trade and Development, the United Nations Children's Fund, the

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1/ See Report of the World Conference of the International Women's Year (United Nations publication, Sales No. E.76.IV.1).

2/ See E/CONF.60/19.

3/ See E/CONF.65/20.

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United Nations Development Programme, the Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations, the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization and the World Bank have planned activities and studies concerning technological development in order to enhance women's contribution to economic life,

Recalling Economic and Social Council resolution 1978/34 of 5 May 1978 on women in development and international conferences, in which the Council urged all Governments to ensure that the topic of women and development be included within the substantive discussions of the Conference, including the United Nations Conference on Science and Technology for Development,

Recognizing the importance of the present quantity and quality of the contribution of women, and its potential value where fully and appropriately utilized and developed, for the well-being and wealth of their families and societies as a whole,

1. Invites Member States to facilitate:

(a) The equal distribution of the benefits of scientific and technological development and its application to men and women in society;

(b) The participation of women in the decision making process related to science and technology, including planning and setting priorities for research and development and in the choice, acquisition, adaptation, innovation, and application of science and technology for development;

(c) The equal access for women and men to scientific and technological training and to the respective professional careers;

2. Recommends that all organs, organizations and other bodies of the United Nations system related to science and technology should:

(a) Continually review the impact of their programmes and activities on women;

(b) Promote the full participation of women in planning and implementation of their programmes;

3. Invites the proposed intergovernmental Committee on Science and Technology for Development:

(a) To give due regard to the perspectives and interests of women in all its recommendations, programmes and actions;

(b) To include in its annual reports a review on the progress made concerning the implementation of the tenets of the present resolution;

4. Recommends to the forthcoming mid-decade conference on women to give due consideration to the relationships between women, science, technology and development.

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1. Resolution on Women and Industrialization

273. At the 21st plenary meeting, on 9 February 1980, the representative of Finland introduced a draft resolution on "Women and Industrialization" (ID/CONF.4/L.2) submitted by Denmark, Finland, Norway and Sweden and co-sponsored by Hungary, India, Mexico, Netherlands, Peru, Philippines, Portugal, Tunisia, the United Republic of Tanzania and Yugoslavia.

274. At the same meeting, the Conference adopted the resolution by consensus. The resolution, as adopted (ID/CONF.4/RES.1), reads as follows:

"The Third General Conference of the United Nations Industrial Development Organization,

"Mindful that the United Nations Decade for Women was proclaimed to draw attention to the problems faced by women in their daily lives and to stimulate recognition at the national and international levels of the loss experienced where women, accounting for half of the world's adult population, are not given equal opportunity to contribute fully to national development,

"Recalling the results of the World Conference of the International Women's Year, held at Mexico City, from 19 June to 2 July 1975,

"Recalling also General Assembly resolutions 3342 (XXIX) of 17 December 1974 on women in development, and 3524 (XXX) of 15 December 1975 on measures for the integration of women in development, in which the General Assembly urged Governments to give sustained attention to the integration of women in the planning, formulation, design and implementation of development projects and programmes,

"Further recalling the provisions of the Lima Declaration and Plan of Action on Industrial Development and Co-operation[a/] concerning the full integration of women in social and economic activities and, in particular, in the industrialization process, on the basis of equal rights,

"Recalling in particular Industrial Development Board resolution 44 (IX) of 25 April 1975 on the integration of women in development,

"Taking into consideration the recommendations of the Preparatory Meeting on the Role of Women in Industrialization in Developing Countries,[b/] held in Vienna from 6 to 10 November 1978,

"Taking also into consideration resolution 2 on women, science and technology, adopted by the United Nations Conference on Science and Technology for Development on 31 August 1979,

"Having considered in response to the request contained in General Assembly resolution 34/204 of 19 December 1979 on effective mobilization and integration of women in development, inter alia:

(a) The impact of new technology and the deployment of modern industries on women's traditional skills and occupations which may be endangered, and

(b) The identification of ways and means of enhancing and facilitating the equal participation of women in industrial development, in both rural and urban areas,

"Bearing in mind the responsibility of the United Nations Industrial Development Organization to develop concrete programmes aimed at integrating women in the industrialization process of developing countries in accordance with the decision taken by the Industrial Development Board, at its thirteenth session,

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a/ A/10012, chap. IV.

b/ ID/WG.283/23.

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"Mindful that further discussions on the effective integration of women in development, and in particular on the sub theme 'Employment, Education and Health', will take place at the World Conference of the United Nations Decade for Women: Equality, Development and Peace to be held in Copenhagen in 1980,

"1. Emphasizes that the integration and participation of women at all levels in the industrialization process is a vital prerequisite for balanced and equitable development;

"2. Calls on all Governments to seek to promote the involvement and integration of women in the industrial development and to take measures to eliminate discriminatory attitudes and practices hampering the effective participation of women in the development process;

"3. Stresses the essential role the United Nations Industrial Development Organization has to play in the integration of women in industrial development;

"4. Welcomes as a first step the establishment of an Interdivisional Working Group on Integration of Women in Industrial Development within the Secretariat of the United Nations Industrial Development Organization to deal with and co-ordinate activities related to the integration of women in development;

"5. Expresses the desire that the Interdivisional Working Group make rapid progress in its work;

"6. Urges the Executive Director of the United Nations Industrial Development Organization to take further measures to facilitate the work of the Interdivisional Working Group in fulfilling its mandate and to submit to the Industrial Development Board, at its fourteenth session, a preliminary progress report;

"7. Requests the Executive Director of the United Nations Industrial Development Organization to report on the impact of the industrialization process on women in forthcoming issues of the Industrial Development Survey and in future monitoring of the implementation of the Lima Declaration and Plan of Action;

"8. Requests also the Executive Director of the United Nations Industrial Development Organization to assist Governments, upon request, in developing data collection systems and reporting methods to provide information - inter alia, for the analyses of the Executive Director - on the integration of women in industrial development, keeping in mind such relevant aspects as employment, training, access to jobs and remuneration;

"9. Further requests the Executive Director of the United Nations Industrial Development Organization to provide data on participation of women in the activities of the Organization - such as training, fellowship programmes, seminars and courses - in his future Annual Reports and other relevant reports;

"10. Invites the Executive Director of the United Nations Industrial Development Organization to undertake urgently the studies requested by the Industrial Development Board, at its thirteenth session, on:[c/]

(a) The selected industries, such as electronics, food processing, and pharmaceutical and textile industries, and their impact on women, and

(b) The possible impact of industrial redeployment on women,

and to submit the reports on these studies to the Industrial Development Board at its fourteenth session;

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c/ Official Records of the General Assembly, Thirty-fourth session, Supplement 16 (A/34/16, para. 137).

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"11. Further invites the Executive Director of the United Nations Industrial Development Organization, in implementing the Lima Declaration and Plan of Action:

(a) To keep under constant review the impact of these decisions on women,

(b) To promote the participation of men and women alike in planning and decision-making, both in their own countries and at the international level, as well as in the carrying out of measures to promote industrialization in developing countries, and

(c) To formulate and implement the industrialization programmes of the Organization with the full participation of men and women alike;

"12. Recommends that the Executive Director of the United Nations Industrial Development Organization take measures to ensure the more effective participation of women in decision- and policy-making processes within the Secretariat of the United Nations Industrial Development Organization and in the field, in accordance with the appropriate resolutions of the General Assembly and other bodies;

"13. Invites the Executive Director of the United Nations Industrial Development Organization to report on the integration and participation of women in the process of industrial development to the World Conference of the United Nations Decade for Women: Equality, Development and Peace, to be held in Copenhagen in 1980;

"14. Requests the Executive Director of the United Nations Industrial Development Organization to report on the progress achieved in the implementation of the present resolution to the Industrial Development Board at its fifteenth session."

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International Conference on Population
Mexico City, August 1984

Recommendations concerning the Role and Status of Women

* Governments are strongly urged to integrate women fully into all phases of the development process, including planning, policy and decision-making. Governments should pursue more aggressively action programmes aimed at improving and protecting the legal rights and status of women through efforts to identify and to remove institutional and cultural barriers to women's education, training, employment and access to health care. In addition, Governments should provide remedial measures including mass education programmes, to assist women in attaining equality with men in the social, political and economic life of their countries. The promotion of community support and the collaboration, at the request of Governments, of non-governmental organizations, particularly women's organizations, in expediting these efforts should be given paramount importance.

* Governments should ensure that women are free to participate in the labour force and are neither restricted from, nor forced to participate in, the labour force for reasons of demographic policy or cultural tradition. Further, the biological role of women in the reproductive process should in no way be used as a reason for limiting women's right to work. Governments should take the initiative in removing any existing barriers to the realization of that right and should create opportunities and conditions such that activities outside the home can be combined with child-rearing and household activities.

* Governments should provide women, through education, training and employment, with opportunities for personal fulfilment in familial and non-familial roles, as well as full participation in economic, social and cultural life, while continuing to give due support to their important social role as mothers. To this end, in those countries where child-bearing occurs when the mother is too young, Government policies should encourage delay in the commencement of child-bearing.

* Interested Governments should make efforts to raise the age of entry into marriage in countries in which this age at marriage is still quite low.

* Governments should promote and encourage, through information, education and communication, as well as through employment legislation and institutional support, where appropriate, the active involvement of men in all areas of family responsibility, including family planning, child-rearing and housework, so that family responsibilities can be fully shared by both partners.

* All Governments which have not already done so are strongly urged to sign and ratify the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women.

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CONVENTION ON THE ELIMINATION OF ALL FORMS OF DISCRIMINATION AGAINST WOMEN

This legally-binding Convention, approved by the UN General Assembly in 1979, consists of a Preamble and 30 Articles. Articles 1 - 16 deal with specific actions to be taken by States Parties to the Convention, while Articles 17 - 30 describe the procedure for the implementation of the Convention by them.

In the PREAMBLE the States Parties to the Convention reaffirm the principles contained in the UN Charter, the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, the Internation Covenants on Human Rights, and other conventions, declarations and recommendations adopted by various members of the UN system promoting equality of rights of men and women.

They express concern that despite these international instruments discrimination against women continues, and recall that such discrimination violates the principles of equality of rights and respect for human dignity, and is an obstacle to the participation of women on equal terms with men in the political, social, economic and cultural life of their countries. It also hampers the full realization of the potential of women in the service of their countries and of humanity as well as hampering the growth of the prosperity of society and the family.

They are concerned that in situations of poverty, women suffer from lack of food, health, education, training, opportunities for employment and other needs, and are convinced that the establishment of a new international economic order would eliminate the widening gap between developed and developing countries and contribute significantly to the promotion of equality between men and women.

They further emphasize that the eradication of apartheid, all forms of racism, racial discrimination, colonialism, neo-colonialism, aggression, foreign occupation and domination, and interference in the internal affairs of States is essential to the full enjoyment of the rights of men and women; and affirm that the promotion of social progress and development will contribute to the attainment of full equality between men and women by the strengthening of international peace and security, relaxation of international tension, co-operation between all States, general and complete disarmament, particularly nuclear disarmament, and the rights of all peoples to self-determination and independence.

Convinced that the full and complete development of a country, the welfare of the world, and the cause of peace require the maximum participation of women on equal terms with men in all fields, they specify that the great contribution of women to the welfare of the family and the development of society has not so far been fully recognized, and that the role of both parents in sharing the upbringing of children is essential, and are aware that a change in

the traditional role of men as well as the role of women in society is needed to achieve full equality between men and women.

DISCRIMINATION

Article 1 defines discrimination against women as any distinction, exclusion or restriction made on the basis of sex which has the effect or purpose of impairing or nullifying the recognition, enjoyment or exercise by women, irrespective of their marital status, on a basis of equality of men and women, of human rights and fundamental freedoms in the political, economic, social, cultural, civil or any other field.

EQUAL RIGHTS

Articles 2 - 16 deal with measures to be taken to ensure women equal rights with men in political and public life, nationality, education, employment, health, economic and social life, legislation and marriage and the family, and takes account of the particular problems of rural women.

IMPLEMENTATION AND ADMINISTRATION OF THE CONVENTION:

Articles 17 - 22 specify that the obligations a State Party assumes under the Convention are meant to be implemented as soon as that State ratifies it, and that a report on measures adopted shall be submitted at least every four years to the Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW), which meets annually to evaluate progress made. Articles 23 - 30 deal with the administration of the Convention.

Copies of the full text of the Convention in Arabic Chinese, English, French, Russian or Spanish may be obtained from:

UN Branch for the Advancement of Women
Room E-1277, Vienna International Centre
P.O. Box 500,
A-1400 Vienna, Austria.

LIST OF ILO STANDARDS CONCERNING ECONOMIC AND LEGAL RIGHTS OF WOMEN WORKERS

1. PROTECTION OF WOMEN WORKERS

A. Maternity Protection

** Maternity Protection, Convention No. 3, 1919
** Maternity Protection (Revised), Convention, No. 103, 1952
Plantation, Convention No. 110, 1958 (Part VII)

B. Conditions of Work

** Night Work (Women), Convention No. 4, 1919
** Night Work (Women) (Revised), Convention No. 41, 1934
** Night Work (Women) (Revised), Convention No. 89, 1948
** Underground Work (Women), Convention No. 45, 1935
White Lead (Painting), Convention No. 13, 1912
Maximum Weight, Convention No. 127, 1967
Benzene, Convention No. 136, 1971

2. PROMOTION OF EQUALITY

** Equal Remuneration, Convention No. 100, 1951
Discrimination (Employment and Occupation), Convention No. 111, 1958
Social Policy (Basic Aims and Standards), Convention No. 117, 1962
Human Resources Development Recommendation, 1975
** Workers with Family Responsibilities, Convention No. 156, 1981

(8 Conventions marked ** concern particularly women)

3. Many other Conventions adopted after the 1950s refer to the principle of non-discrimination on the ground of sex.

4. Other Decisions adopted at the International Labour Conference in 1975 during its 60th session are:

- Declaration on Equal Opportunity and Treatment for Women Workers
- Resolution concerning a Plan of Action with a view to Promoting Equality of Opportunity and Treatment for Women Workers